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THE

UNIVERSAL ASYLUM,

AND

Columbian Magazine:

CONTAINING,

A History of the AMERICAN REVOLUTION, for the years 1775, 76, 77, 78, 79, and 80.

IT ALSO CONTAINS A GREAT VARIETY

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CHARACTERS,
A REVIEW OF AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS,
A REGISTER OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES,
PROCEEDINGS OF CONGRESS,
REPORTS, *&c. &c.*

Illustrated with COPPERPLATES, and a complete INDEX to each Volume.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

IN SIX VOLUMES.

VOL. III.

PHILADELPHIA:

PRINTED, FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, No. 52. SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

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THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR JANUARY, 1791.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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ORNAMENTED with an elegant ENGRAVING of MR. EVANS's improved GRIST-MILL; and a favourite piece of MUSICK.

PHILADELPHIA:

PRINTED, FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, No. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

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To CORRESPONDENTS.

PULCHERIA's Allegory is received. The firſt part of it ſhall appear in our next; and the remainder in the Aſylum for March. We ſhall, at all times, pay the earlieſt attention to the literary favours of *Pulcheria*, and of our other fair correſpondents.

Eliza's pious and elegant *Epiſtle* has a conſpicuous place, in our *Parnaſſiad* for the preſent month. This lady's future correſpondence is reſpectfully ſolicited.

Maria's requeſt ſhall be complied with, as ſpeedily as poſſible.

The Poem ſigned *Truth* is highly ſeaſoned; but not with the true Attic ſalt.

Neſtor's Eſſay, on *the policy of eſtabliſhing a ſmall ſtanding army, in preference to a militia*, in the United States, contains too many remarks of a *temporary* nature. Should he think proper to omit theſe, we ſhall chearfully publiſh that part of his eſſay which relates to the general ſubject. If not, the performance will be returned.

The *Viſion* ſigned *Columbus* is *viſionary* indeed.

R W's *Hiſtory of the Times* affords a lamentable proof of the exiſtence of ſtrong *intellectual* powers, unconnected with every principle of *morality*. To this correſpondent we would earneſtly recommend, a ſerious peruſal of the character of young Servin, as exhibited in *Sully's Memoirs*.

We are again obliged to poſtpone the *continuation* of Dr. Franklin's Life. We ſhall certainly proceed with the ſubject in our next.

We do not perfectly comprehend the meaning of ſome parts of H. F's *Elegy*. An explanation, and a few corrections, will be neceſſary, previous to its being publiſhed.

A Queriſt is requeſted to call on the Editor. His interrogatories cannot be *publickly* anſwered.

The piece ſigned *A Subſcriber*, *An Elegy* on thoſe unfortunate men, who fell in the late expedition againſt the Indians, and the *Bacchanalian's ſoliloquy*, are under conſideration.

ERRATA.

In page 41, line 15, for "accepted" read *excepted*. Page 42, line 23, for "metaphor" read *imagery*.

THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR JANUARY, 1791.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

An Account of MR. EVANS's *Improvements on the art of Manufacturing Grain into Flour or Meal, as exhibited in the annexed* PLATE.

BY theſe improvements, for which Mr. Evans has lately obtained a Patent, the grain and meal are carried from one ſtory to another, or from one part of the ſame ſtory to another; the meal is cooled; and the boulting-hoppers are attended by machinery, which is moved entirely by the power of the mill, and leſſens the expenſe of attendance at leaſt one half.

DESCRIPTION *of the* PLATE.

THE grain is emptied into the ſpout A, by which it deſcends into the garner B; whence, by drawing the gate at C, it paſſes into the elevator C D, which raiſes it to D and empties it into the Crane-Spout E, which is ſo fixed on gudgeons that it may be turned to any ſurrounding granaries, into the Screen-Hopper F, for inſtance, (which has two parts, F and G) out of which it is let into the Rolling Screen, at H, by drawing the ſmall gate a. It paſſes through the Fan I, and falls into the little Sliding-Hopper K, which may be moved, ſo as to guide it into either of the Hanging Garners, over the ſtones L or M; and it is let into the Stone-Hoppers by the little bags bb as faſt as it can be ground. When ground it falls into the Conveyer N N, which carries it into the Elevator O O, this raiſes and empties it into the Hopper-Boy at P, which is ſo conſtructed as to carry it round in a ring, gathering it gradually towards the center, till it ſweeps it into the Boulting Hoppers Q Q.

The tail flour, as it falls, is guided into the Elevator, to aſcend with the meal; and, that a proper quantity may be elevated, there is a regulating board R, ſet under the ſuperfine cloths, on a joint x, ſo that it will turn towards the head or tail of the Reel, and ſend more or leſs into the Elevator, as may be required.

There is a piece of coarſe cloth or wire put on the tails of the ſuperfine reels, that will let all paſs through except the bran, which

falls out at the tail, and a part of which is guided into the elevator with the tail flour, to aſſiſt the boulting in warm weather; the quantity is regulated by a ſmall board r, ſet on a joint under the ends of the reels. Beans may be uſed to keep the cloths open, and ſtill be returned into the elevator to aſcend again. What paſſes through the coarſe cloth, or wire, is guided into the cloth S, to be boulted.

To clean wheat, ſeveral times.

Suppoſe the grain to be in the ſcreen-hopper, F. Draw the gate a; ſhut the gate e; move the ſliding hopper K over the ſpout K c d; and let it run into the elevator to be raiſed again. Turn the crane ſpout over the empty hopper G, and the wheat will be all depoſited there nearly as ſoon as it is out of the hopper F. Then draw the gate e, ſhut the gate a, and turn the crane ſpout over F; and ſo on alternately, as often as neceſſary. When the grain is ſufficiently cleaned, ſlide the hopper K over the holes that lead into the ſtones.

The ſcreenings fall into a garner, hopperwiſe. To clean them draw the gate f, and let them run into the elevator, to be elevated into the ſcreen-hopper F. Then proceed with them as with the wheat, till ſufficiently clean.—To clean the fannings, draw the little gate h, and let them into the elevator, &c, as before.

DESCRIPTION *of the* ELEVATOR, CONVEYER, *and* HOPPER-BOY.

The ELEVATOR is a leathern ſtrap, revolving round two pullies, with buckets faſtened thereto, which are filled at the lower, and emptied at the upper pully. See C D. in Fig. 1ſt—Fig. 3 exhibits a view of the pully, as it is ſupported on each ſide, with the ſtrap and buckets deſcending to be filled.——Fig. 5, is a perſpective view of the bucket of the wheat-elevator; and ſhows the manner in which it is faſtened, by a broad piece of leather which paſſes under the elevator-ſtrap, and is nailed to the ſides with little tacks. It is alſo tacked to the under ſide of the ſtrap to keep it in its place.—Beſides the uſes of the Elevator, that have already been mentioned; it may be employed to unlade ſhips, thus—Annex a conveyer to the axis of the lower pully; let it paſs through the wall of the mill, extend to the ſide of the ſhip, and convey the wheat into the elevator. When large quantities of wheat are to be received, turn the crane ſpout over the great Wheat Granary W. out of which it may be taken, as wanted, by drawing the gate g, which lets it fall into the Garner B, or into the Elevator at any other convenient place.

The CONVEYER is an eight-ſided ſhaft, ſet on all ſides with pins, in an oblique manner. It is put in motion in a trough; and, performing its office on the principle of a continued ſcrew, conveys the grain, or meal, from one end of the trough to the other, whether its direction be aſcending, deſcending or horizontal. See N N, Fig. 1ſt——Fig. 2 is a perſpective view of the Conveyer, as it lies in its trough, at work; and ſhows the manner in which it is joined to the pullies, at each ſide of the elevator.

The HOPPER-BOY is an upright ſhaft, ſet in motion, and carrying round with it an horizontal piece called the arms, ſet with flights, in

the under ſide, in an oblique direction; ſo conſtructed as to ſpread the meal thinly over the floor, to cool; and, at the ſame time, to gather it into the boulting-hopper. Theſe arms are balanced by a weight, hung to a rope paſſing over a pully, at the head of the upright ſhaft; ſo that it plays lightly on the meal, and will riſe or fall as the heap increaſes or decreaſes. See it in fig. 1 over Q. Q. Fig. 4 is a perſpective view, of the under ſide of the arms of the *hopper-boy*, with flights complete. The dotted lines ſhow the track of the flights of one arm; thoſe of the other following, and tracking between them. A A are the ſweepers. Theſe carry the meal round in a ring, drawing it to the centre, as already mentioned. B. B are the ſweepers that drive it into the boulting hopper.

Brief DIRECTIONS *for conſtructing the ſeveral* MACHINES. *Of the* WHEAT-ELEVATOR.

Let the *pullies* be 17 inches in diameter, 4 inches in thickneſs, and half an inch higher in the middle than in any other part. The motion 47 revolutions in a minute, which will move the ſtrap 200 feet, in the ſame time. The *ſtrap* is to be made of good harneſs, 4 inches wide; and to be furniſhed with a *bucket*, of the ſame width, 5½ inches in length, for every foot the ſtrap is in length. This *elevator* will hoiſt 3375 buſhels in 12 hours.

The wheat muſt be let in by ſpouts at the bottom, to meet the buckets. Theſe ſpouts ought to be a little crooked, to ſuit the motion of the ſtrap, that the buckets may not touch them in deſcending.

Of the MEAL-ELEVATOR.

Pullies 16 inches in diameter and 3½ thick, higheſt in the middle. Buckets the width of the ſtrap; their number in proportion to the work they have to do; if to hoiſt meal, tail-flour and bran, for two pairs of ſtones, put one for every foot. The motion 24 revolutions of the pully in a minute, which will move the ſtrap about 100 feet. It will diſcharge the better if made to lean a little.

Of the CONVEYER.

After the *deſcription* that has already been given of the Conveyer, we need make but few remarks on the manner of conſtructing it.—The eight-ſided ſhaft ought to be 5 inches in diameter; the flights 3 inches long, and 2½ wide. Set the firſt flight in an oblique or ſpiral manner, on one ſide of the ſhaft, at the end next the elevator; turn the ſhaft the way in which it is to go when at work, and at the diſtance of 1½ inch, ſet a flight on the next ſide, in the ſame ſpiral manner as the other; and thus go on to turn the ſhaft, and to inſert a flight at every 1½ inch diſtance, till the ſpiral line be completed to the other end of the ſhaft. Then the ſpire of the ſcrew will appear, at firſt view, to be turned the wrong way.

Beſides the *conveying flights*, above-mentioned, half their number of other flights are to be ſet acroſs the ſpiral line with their broad-ſide foremoſt. Theſe are called *lifting-flights*. Their uſe is, to lift the meal from one ſide of the ſhaft, and let it fall through the air to the other ſide. This is of great uſe in cooling the meal.

Of the DESCENDER.

When any obſtruction prevents the deſcent of the meal through the ſpout, the Deſcender becomes neceſſary. This is a broad ſtrap of thin canvaſs or linen, ſet to revolve round two pullies, hung on nice pivots, in a trough or caſe, one end of which is lower than the other; ſo that the weight of the meal let fall from the elevator on the upper ſide of the ſtrap, near the higher pully, ſets the ſtrap in motion, by which the meal is diſcharged at the lower pully into the trough. Here a ſmall bucket, extending acroſs the ſtrap, is uſed, for the purpoſe of bringing up this waſte meal out of the trough.

The *pullies* ought to be one foot in length; 9 inches diameter at the ends, and 10 in the middle: the *ſtrap* 12 inches wide; and the trough 14 inches wide, and 15 deep. As this machine will ſeldom be neceſſary, no repreſentation of it is given in the *Plate*.

Of the HOPPER-BOY.

Length of the arms, when two pairs of ſtones are to be attended, 14 feet; if only for one pair, 10 feet. Their width to be 7 inches at the centre, and 5 at the ends; their thickneſs 2 inches and a half, the fore ſide ſloping upwards. The Flights are to be ſet four inches aſunder; their inclination to be about $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches for five in length near the center; 1 inch in 5 at the ends, and 2 inches in length, that in moving round, they may collect the meal towards the center. One Sweeper muſt be placed at each extremity of the arm, and one over the hopper. The upright ſhaft to be three feet and a half in length, and made round, that the arm may have liberty to riſe about three feet. Let the pully for the balance be 8 inches in diameter.

The following is one of many certificates of the utility of theſe improvements, which Mr. Evans has obtained from thoſe who have applied them in practice.

THESE are to certify that we have erected Oliver Evan's new invented mode of Elevating, Conveying and Cooling meal, &c. As far as we have experienced, we have found them to anſwer a valuable purpoſe, well worthy the attention of any perſon concerned in merchant or even extenſive country mills, who wiſheth to leſſen the labour and expenſe of manufacturing wheat into flour.

Ellicotts'-Mills. Baltimore County—State of Maryland. Auguſt 4th 1790.

JOHN ELLICOTT.
JONATHAN ELLICOTT.
GEORGE ELLICOTT.
NATHANIEL ELLICOTT.

☞ Perſons deſirous of obtaining the privilege of uſing theſe improvements, may apply to Mr. Oliver Evans, the proprietor, at Wilmington (Delaware State) to Mr. Robert Leſlie in Philadelphia, to Mr. Jonathan Ellicott, at Ellicotts'-Mills, near Baltimore, or to Elias Ellicott in Baltimore.

Character of his Excellency, WILLIAM LIVINGSTON, *Esq.* L. L. D. *late Governor of the State of New-Jersey; extracted from the Sermon delivered at the Interment of his Remains, by the* Rev. Alexander Macwhorter, D. D.

HIS *Excellency Governor Livingston* was descended from an eminent family in the State of New-York:—A family distinguished for their numbers—their opulence—their mental abilities, and christian virtues:—A family remarkable for their attachment to liberty, and their opposition to arbitrary power, both civil and ecclesiastical.

Our Governor was by nature blessed with a genius and talents far superior to the common level. His mind was great and comprehensive—his imagination brilliant—refined, and elegant; and his memory strong and retentive.——Those natural endowments were early polished by the best education our infant country could afford. And all these advantages were afterwards improved by a long and close application to reading and study, which rendered him eminent in his profession; and his fame as a writer, both in prose and poetry, was great not only in America, but also in Europe.—He was remarkable from his youth for plainness and simplicity in his dress and manners. The splendor of equipage, pomp, and show, as he never assumed it himself, so neither did he much admire it in others. He was an excellent classical scholar—intimately acquainted with the most celebrated writers of the last and present age—had well digested the Belles Lettres—was a great admirer of the fine arts; and sacrificed much to the muses. His writings are fraught with the evidences of a strong mind—an accurate judgment—a refined taste, and extensive knowledge. His learned accomplishments—striking sentiments, together with his classical elegance of stile, entitle him to rank among the first of our modern writers.—He carried not only an elegant, but, at seasons, a severe pen. In that species of writing stiled *satire*, none have equalled him in this country, and few have surpassed him in any other.

He early embarked in the cause of civil and religious liberty; and his pen was diligently and zealously employed in its defence. When Great Britain infringed our rights by the *stamp act*, the *revenue act*, and afterwards exerted herself to accomplish her purpose by the sword, he became a warm advocate for the American side of the question. The keenness and severity of his political writings exceedingly exasperated the enemy, and soon distinguished him as an object of their peculiar hatred and revenge. They were no less important in supporting, encouraging, and comforting the *Americans*, exciting that spirit of enthusiasm for liberty, which caused them to rush to the high places of the field for its defence. It is probable his pen contributed not a little to the inspiring of the militia of New-Jersey, with that readiness to turn out upon alarms, and that firmness, perseverance and bravery for which they were so remarkable during the war.

His great abilities—his uniform and zealous attachment to the liberties of America, induced our Legislature, early in the revolu-

tion, to elect him to the firſt ſeat of honour in this government. His integrity—his republican virtue—his diligence—faithfulneſs, and punctuality in the diſcharge of the duties of his exalted ſtation, ſecured to him the dignity of being annually choſen the firſt magiſtrate of the State, for a long ſeries of years—and, no doubt, had his life been ſpared, the wiſdom of our legiſlature would have continued this preference for many years to come.

He was often appointed by the people to repreſent them in *conventions* and *congreſſes*. He was a delegate in the *General Convention* which framed our conſtitution: and at all times he did honour to his appointment by performing his part with judgment, activity, and ability.

Our Governor was a perſon of inflexible uprightneſs, and the ſtricteſt honeſty—an eminent example of virtue in his life and converſation, as well as fixed and unſhaken in his Chriſtian principles.—His religion partook not in the leaſt of any deiſtic complexion, which is too prevalent among the great in our day.—After the fulleſt inveſtigation of the ſubject, he reſted in the certain conviction of the divinity of Chriſtianity. He obeyed its precepts and experienced its power. His religion was equally free from enthuſiaſm and ſuperſtition on the one hand, and from bigotry on the other. Creeds and ſtandards of orthodoxy, the inventions of fallable men, as frequently employed, were not held by him in the higheſt eſtimation. He deemed it proper for every party of Chriſtians to publiſh the ſenſe in which they underſtood the ſcriptures, for the inſtruction of their adherents and poſterity, and for the information of each other, that they might know wherein they agreed and wherein they differed. But human ſyſtems being often improved for the deſtruction of charity, and the promotion of bigotry and a party ſpirit, the adopting or ſubſcribing of them as enjoined by many churches, did not meet the approbation of his mind. The imaginary *divine right* of the forms of eccleſiaſtical government, of modes, rites and ceremonies, which have divided and marred the Chriſtian church, he ſincerely deſpiſed. The growing liberality of mind, and the encreaſing charity he perceived among the American Chriſtans and churches of various denominations, he uſed often to ſpeak of with pleaſure.

Not to enlarge upon the character of this great man, whom we this day lament, let it ſuffice briefly to ſay; that his genius was extenſive and various—his accompliſhments diſtinguiſhed and ſhining—his religion without ſuperſtition and bigotry, and his political principles purely republican.—Honeſty and uprightneſs ſhone in him with peculiar luſtre.—The State beheld in him an eminent example of induſtry and economy.—He was juſt without rigour—merciful without partiality—and great without pride—He filled the firſt ſeat of government with an aſſemblage of illuſtrious virtues.

It is no common loſs that we this day mourn; therefore no common ſorrow can be adequate to the gloomy—the dark, and awful occaſion. It is not a ſingle family that this day mourns—It is not a ſingle ſociety, town or country, but our whole land feels the ſtroke, and our bereaved State is moſt ſenſibly affected. The Head—the Guide—the Director—and he who held the helm of our government is no more!

ON *the* LAW *of* NATURE.

Extracted from the Hon. Judge WILSON'S *concluding Lecture on that subject, by particular permission of the learned and ingenious* AUTHOR.

WE have traced, with some minuteness, and, we hope, with some degree of satisfaction to you, the efficient principle of Obligation; and the several means by which our Duty may be known. It will be proper to turn our attention back to the opinions that have been held in philosophy and jurisprudence, concerning this subject. On a review of them, we shall now find that, in general, they are *defective* rather than *erroneous;* that they have fallen short of the mark, rather than deviated from the proper course.

The *fitness* of things denotes their fitness to produce our happiness: Their *nature* means that actual constitution of the world, by which some things produce happiness, and others misery. *Reason* is one of the means by which we discern between those things which produce the former, and those things which produce the latter. The *moral sense feels* and *operates* to promote the same essential discriminations. Whatever promotes the greatest happiness of the whole is congenial to the principles of *utility* and *sociability:* And whatever unites in it *all* the foregoing properties must be agreeable to the will of GOD: For, as has been said once, and as ought to be said again, his will is graciously comprised in this one paternal precept—Let man pursue his happiness and perfection.

The Law of Nature is immutable; not by the effect of an arbitrary disposition; but because it has its foundation in the nature, constitution, and mutual relations of men and things. While *these* continue to be the same, *it* must continue to be the same also. This immutability of Nature's Laws has nothing in it repugnant to the supreme power of an all-perfect Being. Since he himself is the author of our constitution, he cannot but command or forbid such things as are necessarily agreeable or disagreeable to this very constitution. He is under the glorious necessity, of not contradicting himself: This necessity, far from limiting or diminishing his perfections, adds to their external character, and points out their excellency.

The Law of Nature is universal: For it is true, not only that all men are equally subject to the command of their Maker; but it is true also, that the Law of Nature, having its foundation in the constitution and state of man, has an essential fitness for all mankind; and binds them without distinction.

This Law, or *Right Reason*, as Cicero calls it, is thus beautifully described by that eloquent Philosopher: "It is indeed, says he, a true Law, conformable to nature, diffused among all men, unchangeable, eternal. By its commands, it calls men to their duty; by its prohibitions, it deters them from vice. To diminish, to alter, much more to abolish this law is a vain attempt. Neither by the Senate, nor by the People, can its powerful obligation be dissolved. It requires no interpreter or commentator: It is not one law at *Rome*, a-

quires no interpreter or commentator: It is not one law at *Rome*, another at *Athens;* one law now, another hereafter: It is the ſame eternal and immutable law, given at all times and to all nations; For GOD, who is its author and promulgator, is always the *ſole* maſter and ſovereign of mankind."

"Man never is," ſays the poet, in a ſeeming tone of complaint, "but always *to be* bleſt." The ſentiment would certainly be more conſolatory; and, I think, it would alſo be more juſt, if we were to ſay—Man ever *is; for* always to be bleſt.—That we ſhould have more and better things before us than all that we have yet acquired, or enjoyed, is unqueſtionably a moſt deſirable ſtate. The reflexion on this circumſtance, far from diminiſhing our *ſenſe*, or the *importance* of our preſent attainments and advantages, produces the contrary effects. The preſent is gilded by the proſpect of the future.

When *Alexander* had conquered a world, and had nothing left to conquer, what did he do? He ſat down and wept. A well directed ambition, that has conquered worlds, is exempted from the fate of that of *Alexander* the Great: It ſtill ſees before it more and better worlds, as the objects of conqueſt.

It is the glorious deſtiny of man to be always progreſſive. Forgetting thoſe things that are behind, it is his duty, and it is his happineſs, to preſs on towards thoſe that are before. In the order of Providence, as has been obſerved on another occaſion, the progreſs of ſocieties towards perfection reſembles that of an individual. This progreſs has hitherto been but ſlow: By many unpropitious events it has often been interrupted: But may we not indulge the pleaſing expectation, that, in future, it will be accelerated; and will meet with fewer and leſs conſiderable interruptions?

Many circumſtances ſeem,—at leaſt to a mind anxious to ſee it, and apt to believe what it is anxious to ſee,—many circumſtances ſeem to indicate the opening of ſuch a glorious proſpect. The principles and the practice of Liberty are gaining ground in more than one ſection of the globe. When Liberty prevails, the Arts and Sciences lift up their heads and flouriſh. When the arts and ſciences flouriſh, political and moral improvements will likewiſe be made. All will receive from each, and each will receive from all, mutual ſupport and aſſiſtance: Mutually ſupported and aſſiſted, all may be carried to a degree of perfection hitherto *unknown;* perhaps hitherto not *believed*.

"Men, ſays the ſagacious Hooker, if we view them in their ſpring, are, at the firſt, without underſtanding or knowledge at all. Nevertheleſs, from this utter *vacuity*, they grow by degrees, till they become at length to be even as the angels are. That which agreeth to the one now, the other ſhall attain to in the end; They are not ſo far disjoined and ſevered, but that they come at length to meet."

Our progreſs in *virtue* ſhould certainly bear a juſt proportion to our progreſs in *knowledge*. Morals are undoubtedly capable of being carried to a much higher degree of excellence than the *ſciences*, excellent as they are.

Hence we may infer, that the Law of Nature, though immutable in its principles, will be progreſſive in its operations and effects. Indeed the ſame immutable principles will direct the progreſſion.

In every period of his existence, the law, which the divine wisdom has approved for man, will not only be fitted to the cotemporary degree; but will be calculated to produce, in future, a still higher degree of perfection.

A delineation of the Laws of Nature has been often attempted. Books, under the appellations of Institutes and Systems of that Law, have been often published. From what has been said concerning it, the most finished performances executed by human hands cannot be perfect. But most of them have been rude and imperfect, to a very unnecessary, some to a shameful degree.

A more perfect work than has yet appeared, upon this great subject, would be a most valuable present to mankind. Even the most general outlines of it cannot be expected from me, at least in the present course of lectures.

Of the PASSIONS, *as they display themselves in the* LOOK *and* GESTURE.

(*From* DR. BEATTIE'S *Elements of Moral Science, lately published.*)

PASSIONS being commotions of the body as well as of the mind, it is no wonder that they should display themselves in the looks and behaviour. If they did not, our intercourse with one another would be much more difficult and dangerous than it is; because we could not so readily discover the characters of men, or what is passing in their minds. But the outward expression of the passions is a sort of universal language; not very extensive indeed, but sufficiently so to give information of many things which it concerns us to know, and which otherwise we could not have known. When a man is even at pains to conceal his emotions, his eyes, features, complexion, and voice will discover them to a discerning observer; and when he is at no pains to hide or disguise what he feels, the outward indications will be so significant, that hardly any person can mistake their meaning: his anger, for example, though he should not utter a word, will contract his brows, flash in his eyes, make his lips quiver, and give irregular motions to his limbs. Sallust says of Catiline, that his eyes had a disagreeable glare, that his complexion was pale, his walk sometimes quick and sometimes slow, and that his general appearance betokened a discomposure of mind approaching to insanity.

It must be remarked here, that all are not equally quick-sighted in discerning the inward emotion by means of the outward sign. Some have great acuteness in this respect, some very little: which may in part be owing to habits of attention or inattention. If there be men, as I believe there are, who study almost every countenance that comes in their way, whether of man or of beast, and if there be others who seldom mind things of that nature, it is reasonable to suppose that the former will have more of this acuteness than the latter. The

talent I ſpeak of is ſometimes called *ſkill in Phyſiognomy*, or *Phyſiognomony*; which laſt form of the word is more ſuitable to its Greek original. Ariſtotle, and other ancient Philoſophers, wrote of it; and there were in ancient times perſons whoſe profeſſion it was to judge of the character from the outward appearance. One of theſe, having ſeen Socrates, without knowing who he was, pronounced him to be a very bad man, and enſlaved to ſome of the worſt paſſions in human nature. This was reported to Socrates, as a proof of the preſumption and folly of the phyſiognomiſt. But Socrates told them, that the man had diſcovered uncommon penetration; for that he was by nature ſubject to all thoſe paſſions, though with the aid of reaſon and Philoſophy he had now got the better of them.

I remark, ſecondly, That as all human minds are not equally ſuſceptible of warm emotion, ſo all human bodies are not equally liable to receive impreſſions from the mind. There is an awkwardneſs in the geſtures of ſome people, and a want of meaning in their faces, which make the outward appearance pretty much the ſame at all times, unleſs they be under great agitation. This may be in part conſtitutional, and partly the effect of habit. That uniformity of feature which the Stoics affected, and in which they ſuppoſed the dignity of man in a great meaſure to conſiſt, was no doubt in many of them aſſumed and artificial. But when we ſee the looks of one child continually varying as his thoughts vary, and thoſe of another rarely undergoing any ſenſible change, we muſt impute this diverſity to conſtitution, as we cannot ſuppoſe there is art or affectation in the caſe. In the countenance of Garrick there was more variety of expreſſion than I ever ſaw in any other. This, after he became a player, he ſtudied and practiſed with extraordinary application: but the ſame thing was obſervable in him from his earlieſt years; as I have been aſſured by thoſe who knew him when a boy.

I remark, thirdly, That all ſtates of ſociety do not allow equal ſcope to the outward and viſible diſplay of the paſſions. People in civilized life, from the awe in which they ſtand of the faſhion and of one another, are at pains to curb, or at leaſt to hide, their more violent emotions: whereas among ſavages, and perſons little acquainted with decorum, there is hardly any reſtraint of this ſort. Hence the intercourſe of the latter is always more boiſterous than that of the former, whether the converſation lead to joy or ſorrow, merriment or anger; and their countenances are more deeply impreſſed with the traces of their Predominant paſſions. Artiſts, too, as I have elſewhere remarked, who employ themſelves in the nicer parts of mechanics, have generally a fixedneſs of feature, ſuited to the earneſt attention which they are obliged to beſtow on their work; while thoſe who can ply their trade, and amuſe themſelves at the ſame time with diſcourſe, have for the moſt part ſmoother faces, and features leſs ſignificant.

Though there are many who, from inattention or other cauſes, are not acute in diſcerning human characters, yet almoſt every man is to a certain degree a phyſiognomiſt. Every one can diſtinguiſh an angry from a placid, a cheerful from a melancholy, a thoughtful from a thoughtleſs, and a dull from a penetrating, countenance. Children

are capable of this; and ſoon learn to fear the frowns, and take encouragement from the ſmiles, of the nurſe; to participate in her joys or ſorrows, when they ſee the outward ſigns of thoſe emotions; and to ſtand more in awe of an acute than of a liſtleſs obſerver. The faces of the more ſagacious brutes are not without expreſſion. A ſnarling cur and a well-natured dog, a high-mettled and a ſpiritleſs horſe, are known by their countenance and carriage; and one might perceive intuitively, that wolves, foxes, polecats, and bull-dogs, are dangerous animals, and that from aſſes, ſheep, calves, lambs, and kids, one has nothing to fear. He who acknowledges theſe facts, and has obſerved what varieties of expreſſion may be diſplayed in pictures and ſtatues, will admit, that phyſiognomy is a ſort of ſcience, and not deſtitute of truth; and that, by a careful obſerver, conſiderable progreſs may be made in it.

But obſerve, that it is not from the countenance alone that Phyſiognomiſts form their opinions. They muſt hear a man ſpeak, and ſee him move, and act, and ſmile; they muſt be acquainted with his general carriage, before they can decide upon his character. Painters have obſerved, that the poſition of the head is particularly expreſſive. Humility and ſorrow appear in its hanging down; arrogance, in lifting it up, and toſſing it back; ſome of the gentler affections, in its inclining to one ſide; and ſteadineſs, in its riſing erect between the ſhoulders. Love, Hatred, Joy, Grief, Intreaty, Threatening, Mildneſs, as well as Admiration, Anger, and Scorn, have viſible effects on the attitudes of the head. The hands too, which it is difficult to move gracefully, and which thoſe who have not been accuſtomed to elegant ſociety ought to move but ſeldom, and with caution, —the hands, I ſay, by their motions and geſtures, expreſs various ſtates of the mind, as Admiration, Hope, Conſent, Refuſal, Fear, Intreaty, and many others. But to deſcribe thoſe motions with accuracy is hardly poſſible; and, in a matter of this kind, inaccurate rules are worſe than no rules at all, as they lead to affectation, and conſequently to ungracefulneſs.

Some people ſhew their characters more ſlowly than others. With one you think yourſelf acquainted at firſt ſight; of another, after long trial, you can make nothing, and, if he is very cautious, he may elude your acuteſt obſervation for years. Hence let the phyſiognomiſt learn to be rather ſlow than haſty, in forming a judgment. Let him be on his guard, though appearances are favourable; and let charity incline him to moderation, even when he may think he has certainly detected a dangerous or diſagreeable aſſociate. We are often diſſatisfied with a man at his firſt appearance, whom we afterwards find worthy of high eſteem. In ſhort, Phyſiognomy is, in moſt caſes, a conjectural ſcience, and muſt not be implicitly truſted; for objections may be found to almoſt every one of its principles. Marſhal Turenne, the greateſt commander, and one of the beſt men of his time, had ſo unpromiſing a look, that when meanly dreſſed, as he often was, ſtrangers were apt to miſtake him for a ſimpleton. The ſame thing is recorded of another illuſtrious commander, Philopemen: and our Charles II. though a man of great pleaſantry and good nature, had a ſtern and forbidding countenance.

Though I have long been ſtudious of Phyſiognomy, and ſometimes flattered myſelf that I had ſkill in it, I dare not venture to treat of it in any other way, than by offering a few ſlight obſervations: well knowing that on ſuch a ſubject, people are apt to run into wild theories, more likely to miſlead than to inform. The opinions of Ariſtotle and other old writers have been collected by Joannes Baptiſta Porta; whoſe book, though formerly in ſome eſteem, will give little ſatisfaction to the unbiaſſed and inquiſitive obſerver. He, and ſome others, have amuſed themſelves with fancying likeneſſes between the faces of men and of brutes, and aſſigning that character to the man, which predominates in the beaſt he reſembles. They have alſo, from the proportions of particular parts of a human body, drawn concluſions with reſpect to the virtues or vices of the ſoul with which it is animated. And ſome would eſtimate the powers of a man's underſtanding by the ſhape of his ſkull, and the outline of his brow and noſe. I have neither time nor inclination to enter into theſe inquiries: though I will not take it upon me to ſay, that they are wholly without foundation.

(To be concluded next month.)

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

The PENNSYLVANIA FARMER;

A Moral Tale.

"THE powers of winter are diſplayed. Over ſnow and ice the ſleigh ſwiftly glides. It diſpenſes plenty and wealth to the farmer, the villager, and the citizen. I hear the ſtorm. It rages; it ſhakes my humble habitation. But Heaven is my ſupport, and induſtry, with its attendant virtues, my guide."

Thus ſpoke a Pennſylvania farmer, as, reclining on his elbow, he prepared to awake the wife of his boſom. Loud was the ſtorm. He trembled not, nor was ſhe much alarmed. Affection was their comforter; and the proſpect of ſucceſs in life was expanded according to their ideas.

"I will go to market in the cart" ſaid Thomas. "You muſt not," ſaid Judith. "The ſleigh is ready, my dear. Get into it as faſt as you pleaſe. You ought never to think of a wheeled carriage, when you can be better provided."—The hint was taken.

He however recollected that the harneſs might be out of order. "Going to the ſeat of government, ſaid he, I ought to have every thing in due condition." This was communicated in a whiſper. "Be prudent, ſaid ſhe, and all will be right."

He arrived at the ſeat of government; Philadelphia, I mean. The beſt market in the world for meat, vegetables, &c. &c. &c.

Thomas, although he had been often in the city, could not help admiring its increaſing magnitude. Story roſe above ſtory, with aſtoniſhing rapidity, and from Delaware to Schuylkill, there was ſuch a

number of houſes, either completely built or unfiniſhed, that Induſtry might be heard to ſhout in triumph, and Magnificence be ſeen to ſmile in ecſtacy.

He diſplays his goods under the cover of the market, after having left his ſleigh in a ſecure place. So excellent in their kinds are they, and ſo neatly diſpoſed, that he finds a ready ſale for them. The dollars rattling in his pocket, he begins to think of home. But ſome neceſſaries muſt be purchaſed for domeſtic uſe, and ſome toys for his children. In perambulating the city, his aſtoniſhment recurs. Every houſe ſeems a palace, and every ſtore a mine of gold. Growing diſcontented with his occupation, he at length exclaims, "I will ſell my land; I will enter into trade, and in a few years be as rich as the proudeſt of them all!"

On his return, he conſults his wife. Dazzled by the proſpect of grandeur, which the eloquence of Thomas had repreſented in the moſt glowing colours, ſhe conſents to his engaging a houſe in——— ſtreet, between———ſtreet———and———ſtreet. Having ſold his farm and ſtock, greatly under value, he promiſes an enormous rent, His induſtry being known, his credit is not doubted. He viſits the vendue-ſtores, and bids with all the energy of expectation. Oppoſition is ſilenced; and Thomas, punctual in his payments, is ſoon regarded as a capital trader.

But alas! unuſed to commercial tranſactions, he at firſt begins to doubt, then to fear, and laſtly to deſpond. He dreads the dun; he ſuſpects his debtors; buſineſs ſtagnates; the gloſs of inordinate ambition vaniſhes; and Thomas diſdains his ſhop, and ſighs for his farm. But it is irrevocably gone; its value ſpent in ſpeculations, unaſſiſted by experience. The bankrupt act is ſuſpended over him by a ſingle thread. He ſickens; he deſpairs, and dies. His family experience all the horrors of want; and in anguiſh lament that deſire for wealth and finery, which ſeduced them from the paths of eaſe and contentment, into thoſe of avarice and pride.

B. W.

Philad. Jan. 7th. 1791.

INGENUITY *of a* BLIND MAN.

MR. Joſeph Strong, of Carliſle, (England) who has been blind from his infancy, follows the buſineſs of a Draper Weaver; and is allowed, even by people of the ſame occupation, to be not only a good, but an expeditious workman. He is at preſent ſomewhat advanced in years, but his mechanical abilities are not yet impaired in any conſiderable degree. In the exerciſe of theſe, beſides making almoſt every article of houſehold furniture, he has conſtructed various pieces of machinery; one of which is the model of a loom, and the figure of a man working it. As an appendage, he added a brace of puppets, repreſenting two women buffetting each other; or, as he interprets them to his viſitors, "boxing for the web." At different times he has dreſſed himſelf with articles entirely the work of his

own hands. The inſtances of his admirable execution (or rather ſuch of them only as have come to our knowledge) are too various to be enumerated here. To ſhew his ſtrong propenſity to produce, by his own ingenuity and labour, whatever he thought worthy of poſſeſſing, we ſhall add the following circumſtance:

When he was about fifteen years of age, he concealed himſelf one afternoon in the cathedral, during the time of ſervice; after which, the congregation being gone, and the doors ſhut, he got into the organ-loft, and examined every part of the inſtrument. This had engaged his attention till about midnight; when, having ſatisfied himſelf reſpecting the general conſtruction, he proceeded to try the tones of the different ſtops, and the proportion they bore to each other. This experiment was not to be conducted in ſo ſilent a manner as his former enquiries. In ſhort, the noiſe alarmed the neighbourhood of the church, and the circumſtance of the organiſt having died a ſhort time before, and no ſucceſſor having been appointed, cauſed great conſternation in the ears of all who heard it. After ſome deliberation, a party, leſs intimidated than the reſt, ſummoned reſolution enough to enter the church at that tremendous hour; and Joſeph, not leſs confounded than his unexpected viſitors, was obliged to abandon his ſtudies for that time. The next day, he was taken before the dean, who, after reprimanding him for the ſteps he had taken to gratify his curioſity, permitted him to viſit the organ at all ſeaſonable times. In conſequence of this, he ſet about making a chamber-organ, which he completed without the aſſiſtance of any perſon. He ſold this inſtrument to a merchant in the Iſle of Man, who afterwards removed to Dublin, where it is ſtill in being, and is conſidered as a great curioſity. Soon after his diſpoſing of that, he made another, upon which he now plays, both for his amuſement and devotion; having a ſet of chants (his own compoſition) which he frequently uſes as a religious exerciſe, and to which he joins long and irregular lines, expreſſive of various devotional ſubjects.

Some years ago he walked from Carliſle to London, to viſit Mr. Stanley, the celebrated organiſt and compoſer; on which occaſion he made, for the firſt time, a pair of ſhoes.

On the PHYSICAL CAUSE *of* LOVE.

By MR. BURKE.

WHEN we have before us ſuch objects as excite love and complacency, the body is affected much in the following manner.—The head reclines ſomething on one ſide; the eyelids are more cloſed than uſual, and the eyes roll gently, with an inclination to the object; the mouth is a little opened, and the breath drawn ſlowly, with now and then a ſlow ſigh: the whole body is compoſed, and the hands fall idly to the ſides. All this is accompanied with an inward ſenſe of melting and languor. Theſe appearances are always proportioned to the degree of beauty in the object, and of ſenſibility in

the obſerver. And this gradation from the higheſt pitch of beauty and ſenſibility, even to the loweſt of mediocrity and indifference, and their correſpondent effects, ought to be kept in view, elſe this deſcription will ſeem exaggerated. From this deſcription it is almoſt impoſſible not to conclude, that beauty acts by relaxing the ſolids of the whole ſyſtem. There are indeed, all the appearances of ſuch a relaxation;—and a relaxation ſomewhat below the natural tone ſeems to be the cauſe of all poſitive pleaſure. Who is a ſtranger to that manner of expreſſion, ſo common in all times and in all countries, of being ſoftened, relaxed, enervated, diſſolved, melted away by pleaſure? The univerſal voice of mankind, faithful to their feelings, concurs in affirming this uniform and general effect; and although ſome particular inſtance may perhaps be found, wherein there appears a conſiderable degree of poſitive pleaſure, without all the characters of relaxation, we muſt not therefore reject the concluſion drawn from a concurrence of many experiments, but muſt ſtill retain it, ſubjoining the exceptions which may occur, according to the judicious rule laid down by Sir Iſaac Newton, in the third book of his Optics. Our poſition will, I conceive, appear confirmed beyond any reaſonable doubt, if we can ſhew that ſuch things as we have already obſerved to be the genuine conſtituents of beauty, have each of them, ſeparately taken, a natural tendency to relax the fibres. And if it muſt be allowed us, that the appearance of the human body, when all theſe conſtituents are united together before the ſenſory, further favors this opinion, we may venture, I believe, to conclude, that the paſſion called love, is produced by this relaxation. By the ſame method of reaſoning, which we have uſed in the enquiry into the cauſes of the ſublime, we may likewiſe conclude, that as a beautiful object preſented to the ſenſe, by cauſing a relaxation in the body, produces the paſſion of love in the mind; ſo, if by any means the paſſion ſhould firſt have its origin in the mind, a relaxation of the outward organs will as certainly enſue, in a degree proportioned to the cauſe.

On ELEGANCE *of* LANGUAGE.

(From Mr. Webb's Literary Amuſements.)

Come Hooker, with thee let me dwell upon phraſe
Uncorrupted by wit, unambitious of praiſe:
Thy language is chaſte, without aims or pretence;
'Tis a ſweetneſs of breath, from a ſoundneſs of ſenſe.

As—"They ſaw, that to live by one man's will, became the cauſe of all men's miſery!"

Again—

"The general and perpetual voice of men is as the ſentence of God himſelf. For that which all men have at all times learned, nature herſelf muſt needs have taught. And God being the author of nature, her voice is but his inſtrument."

He riſes in beauty, but never ſteps out of nature. "Of law there can be no leſs acknowledged, than that her ſeat is the boſom of God; her voice the harmony of the world: all things in heaven and earth do her homage; the very leaſt, as feeling her care, and the greateſt, as not exempted from her power: both angels and men, and creatures of what condition ſoever, though each in different ſort and manner, yet all with uniform conſents, admiring her as the mother of their peace and joy."—Hooker's Eccl. Pol.

In theſe paſſages the diction is diſtinguiſhed by a gradual riſe from abſolute ſimplicity to conſummate elegance.

The *ſimplicity* is abſolute, when the language is merely what the thought makes it: *Elegance* implies a choice; but the choice muſt ſeem to ſpring from the impreſſion of the idea. By this it is diſtinguiſhed from refinement, which is—A ſtudied advantage in the manner, independent on an adequate motive in the thought.

A ſuperior genius may truſt to the influence of his feelings: the beauty, of whatever kind it may be, will paſs into the language. Hence the effuſions of genius become the laws of compoſition.

They who cultivate elegance, with no other aim than to do juſtice to the idea, will be deſervedly admired: but when, from obſerving the pleaſure this gives, they become too ſtudious to pleaſe, they are apt at times to fall into refinement. That which is but a lapſe in men of parts, riſes into deſign with thoſe who have none. From a contempt of ſimplicity in the expreſſion, may be traced the ſeveral exceſſes of refinement; and the prevalence of ill taſte in many branches of compoſition.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL AYSLUM.

CHARACTERISTICS *of the* AMERICAN INDIANS.

IN the Aſylum *for June*, 1790, *we preſented our readers with a celebrated ſpeech of a Creek-Indian, againſt the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors; and in the* Aſylum *for December, we gave ſome further ſpecimens of* Indian Oratory, *for theſe, together with the following extracts, we are indebted to a gentleman of literary eminence in this city, who firſt publiſhed them, in a pamphlet, (which is now out of print,) in the year* 1753.

IT is a very great miſtake to think thoſe people are barbarians, always thirſting after human blood. Very different is their character. They are the greateſt *peace-lovers*, at the ſame time that they are, perhaps, the fierceſt and boldeſt *warriors*, on the face of the earth. Their bravery in the day of battle, and their conſtancy in enduring hardſhips, have never been excelled by the moſt renowned *Romans*; nor, in time of peace, have the moſt generous nations ever outſhone them, in acts of humanity, hoſpitality, juſtice, and ſincerity.

Numerous are the proofs which might be brought in ſupport of this character of them. Whenever their country and liberty lie at ſtake,

their heroic ardour and contempt of death, has often been carried ſo far, that they have been known to continue ſinging their exploits, and triumphing in their glorious fate, even in the midſt of torments and the agonizing throws of death. On the other hand, whenever their country and liberty are out of danger, their paſſionate deſire of *peace* as far exceeds vulgar bounds, as their ardour in war. They eſteem peace the greateſt bleſſing under heaven; and their young men and maids, of fine natural parts, with their bards, or druids, frame *Songs* of *Peace*, while their venerable *Sachems* mention it with ſuch complacency and triumphant rapture, that their ſpeech ſeems a poetical language, or rather a ſort of divine enthuſiaſm.

Peace they always expreſs by the emblem of a fair tree, whoſe top reaches to the ſun, and whoſe roots are extended through all the nations that are leagued in the ſame chain with themſelves. Such nations they repreſent as repoſing unmoleſted under the ſacred ſhade of this tree, cheered with the ambroſial dews of happineſs, dropping from its ever-verdant leaves.

Upon the whole, then, this is the general character of theſe reputed barbarians, that they will cheerfully forego the allurements of eaſe; and, undaunted, confront the blackeſt horrors of war, whenever liberty and their country point the way; and, when theſe are no more at ſtake, they will as cheerfully relinquiſh the charms of *conqueſt*, and fly to feaſt upon the private ſocial joys, under the ſhade of their loved tree of peace: And herein, perhaps, they may be thought worthy of the imitation of politer nations. They think their whole happineſs and reputation, as a people, depends upon ſupporting this character; and their whole polity and public ceremonies, both at making war and peace, are calculated to ſupport it.

The night before they go forth to war, it is their cuſtom to aſſemble; and, having their faces painted in the moſt frightful manner, as they always have in the day of battle, every warrior, riſing up in his turn, ſings the great exploits of his anceſtors, together with his own. This is accompanied with violent geſticulations, worked up to ſuch a pitch, as would make any ſpectator, that is unacquainted with their cuſtoms, uneaſy. This is what is called the *War-dance*; and, by theſe geſticulations, they repreſent the manner in which thoſe great actions were performed, which are the ſubject of their ſong. In the mean while, all preſent join, from time to time, in the chorus, and applaud every notable act. Perhaps, as Mr. Colden, their hiſtory-writer, judiciouſly obſerves, rude ſolemnities of this kind might have given the firſt riſe to *tragedy*.

But further, to avoid digreſſions, it is alſo their cuſtom to repreſent their chief actions on trees, near their dwellings, which, together with theſe war-ſongs, tranſmits the hiſtory of their illuſtrious atchievements from generation to generation. All this, joined to that ſolemn reception and thoſe acclamations of applauſe (not inferior to the honours of a Roman triumph) which they have on their return from war, ſerve to keep alive that love of liberty, and ſpirit of heroiſm, which conſtitute their peculiar character. They are at as much pains, on the other hand, to propagate the love of honourable peace, as to keep alive a noble ardour in honourable war. They promulgate

peace with the greateſt ſolemnities, particularly the burying of the *hatchet*, or axe of war; the planting of the *tree* of *peace*, together with the dancing and ſinging of *peace ſongs*.

Their humanity and hoſpitality are as remarkable as their other virtues. It is known, by long experience, that when once they have ſecured their priſoners, they never uſe them ill; and, in times of greateſt want, they will rather ſuffer themſelves, their wives and children, to ſtarve, than ſee their priſoners deſtitute of their allowance. Nor is there one inſtance known, of their having ever offered the leaſt violence to any female captive.

Strangers, who take ſanctuary among them, of whatever nation or colour, they protect with the moſt ſcrupulous ſanctity of honour. Sooner than deliver up any refugee, or violate what they think the laws of hoſpitality, they will pay his debts for him, or give the value of him in ſkins to his maſter. Nor do they reſt here, or think they have done enough for the happineſs of the perſon who thus throws himſelf upon their protection, until they have given him lands for a maintenance, and naturalized him among their nations. What is there, in the primitive ages of virtue and ſimplicity, more worthy of admiration, than theſe well atteſted facts!

When any body of people from other nations comes among them, they offer them ſettlements, and incorporate them with themſelves; by which means they ſtrengthen their little States, and give ſpecimens of the beſt policy.

With regard to ſome vices and ſavage cuſtoms that prevail among them, we ought not to be ſurpriſed at them, when we put their many ſhining virtues in the balance, and reflect upon the force of cuſtom and education, which, in the politeſt nations, has frequently ſoftened and familiarized the moſt barbarous actions; ſuch as burning children alive in ſacrifice, and perſecuting one another to death, for God's ſake.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

HISTORY *of the* AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

(Continued from page 380, of Vol. V.)

1776. DURING theſe tranſactions, the blockade of Quebec was continued, by the few American troops who ſurvived the fall of general Montgomery, and the failure of the attack on that place. Although their number was not more than one third of the garriſon; and although even theſe were not furniſhed with ordnance ſufficient to make any impreſſion on the works; and, from the ſeverity of the duty which was to be undergone, by ſuch a handful of men, were unable to procure one night's reſt out of two, till the arrival of ſome ſmall reinforcements, yet they were active and perſevering in their attempts to ſurpriſe the garriſon; and were tolerably ſuc-

ceſsful in cutting off every relief, or ſupply of proviſions, from without.

General Carleton contented himſelf with his ſituation. He guarded with the utmoſt vigilance againſt the attempts of the beſiegers to ſurpriſe the garriſon; but did not chooſe to run the riſk of ſallying out to repel their attacks, well knowing that he would be able to drive them out of Canada with eaſe, as ſoon as his expected reinforcements ſhould arrive from Great-Britain.

The Canadians, diſheartened by the late misfortunes of the Americans, and diſguſted by the rapacious depredations committed on their property, both by the officers and ſoldiers, became more cool in their attachment; and, at one time, a conſiderable number of them embodied themſelves, under a Mr. Beajeu, with an intent to raiſe the ſiege of their capital; but were encountered, on their march, by a detachment of Provincials, who entirely defeated them.

Congreſs, deſirous of ſtriking a deciſive blow in Canada, previous to the arrival of reinforcements from England, and encouraged by the ſucceſs which at firſt attended general Montgomery, had reſolved, *Jan.* 8. before the news of his unfortunate attempt to ſtorm Quebec arrived, that nine battalions ſhould be kept up in Canada. The news of general Montgomery's fall, though diſcouraging, did not extinguiſh the ardour of the Americans. Congreſs reſolved, that *Jan.* 19. the troops already voted ſhould march for Canada, with all poſſible ſpeed; and that ſome others ſhould forthwith be raiſed, for the ſame ſervice.

Theſe meaſures of Congreſs were warmly ſeconded by the people at large. Houſeholders cheerfully furniſhed what blankets could be ſpared from their families, for this winter expedition; many thouſands of hard dollars, for the uſe of the army in Canada, were readily exchanged, at par, by individuals, for the paper bills of Congreſs; and the recruiting buſineſs went on with the utmoſt ſpirit and ſucceſs. So great was the public ardour that Arthur St. Clair, who received his recruiting orders, as colonel of one of the Pennſylvania regiments, on the 10th of January, raiſed his full complement of men, with ſuch extraordinary expedition, that ſix companies of his regiment joined the army before Quebec on the 11th of April, notwithſtanding the hardſhips they ſuſtained, from the length of the march, and the extreme coldneſs of the ſeaſon.

About this time, a woman, infected with the ſmall-pox, came out from Quebec; and, by mixing with the American ſoldiers, ſpread the contagion amongſt them, to the great diminution of their effective force. By the arrival of various reinforcements, the army amounted to three thouſand men, by the firſt of May; but of theſe not more than 900 were fit for duty, owing to the ravages of the ſmall pox amongſt them. The ſoldiers inoculated themſelves, contrary to the poſitive orders of of their officers.

Such was the ſituation of the American army, when General Thomas arrived, and took the command. This, however, did not pre- *May* 3. vent his attempting to ſurprize the town. The river being ſufficiently free from ice, a fire-ſhip was prepared and ſent to burn the ſhipping; ſcaling-ladders were at the ſame time provided;

and the troops were held in readineſs for an attack on Quebec, as ſoon as the fire-ſhip ſhould ſpread devaſtation among the veſſels in the river. But the plan failed,—the ſhip being ſet in a blaze by the fire of the enemy, and ſent drifting down the ſtream.

No proſpect now remained of effecting any thing againſt Quebec, where ſuccours were daily expected. The number of healthy men in the American army was very inconſiderable; they were incumbered with the ſick: diſperſed in different quarters, for want of barracks, and furniſhed with no more than three days proviſions. It was therefore reſolved, in a council of war, to retreat immediately, in the beſt manner they could. But the reſolve was too late. Some of the ſhips, with reinforcements from Great Britain, arrived next morning, having forced their way through the ice, before ſuch a meaſure was deemed practicable by the Americans. General Carleton, perceiving the intention of the American general to make good a retreat, landed a number of troops on the very day of their arrival, joined them to thoſe in the garriſon, and marched at their head to attack the retreating army. He met with no reſiſtance. The beſiegers retreated with the utmoſt precipitation.

May 5.

Candour demands that a tribute be paid, in this place, to the humanity, as well as the military talents, of general Carleton. He had hitherto ſtruggled under difficulties which would have proved inſurmountable to an officer of common abilities: He had now an opportunity of diſplaying his character as a man—A great number of the Americans had been left ſick in the hoſpitals; theſe unfortunate men he treated in the moſt generous manner; and permitted them, when recovered, to return home. But his humanity did not reſt here. Apprehending that many of the ſick and wounded, who were unable to make good their retreat, might be concealed in the woods, and expoſed to great diſtreſs, he iſſued a proclamation, ordering proper perſons to ſeek them out, and give them all neceſſary relief, at the publick expence. To induce them to accept of this benevolent offer, he further promiſed, that as ſoon as they were recovered, they ſhould be at perfect liberty to return to their reſpective homes.

The Americans retreated till they reached the river Sorel, where they were joined by conſiderable reinforcements; but the prevalence of the ſmall pox amongſt them, very much weakened their force. Here general Thomas caught the infection and died. He had forbidden his men to be inoculated, and would not avail himſelf of a precaution which he did not allow the ſoldiers to uſe. The command now devolved on general Sullivan.

The Americans had, for ſome time paſt, ſtationed a party of 400 men at the Cedars, a ſmall fort, about forty miles above Montreal. The fort was attacked, in the beginning of May, by a mixed party, conſiſting of a few regulars, ſome Canadians, and a number of Indians. Col. Beadle, the commanding officer, reſigned his place to major Butterfield, and repaired to Montreal, under the pretext of obtaining a reinforcement. Butterfield, without having made much reſiſtance, ſurrendered the fort. In the mean time a reinforcement was coming forward from Montreal, under major Sherburne, Beadle not being diſpoſed to return. Sherburne was fiercely attacked on his

march, by a body of 500 Canadians and Indians; and though at the head of no more than 100 men, he maintained an obstinate conflict for nearly two hours, when he was overpowered by the enemy, who surrounded the remains of his brave party, and rushed on with their tomahawks. Many were butchered; and the rest were made prisoners. Many of the Indians were slain in this action; but what exasperated them most was the fall of a Seneca chief. Arnold, who commanded at Montreal, immediately marched at the head of a body of men to the Cedars, to remedy the evils that had taken place. But, on his approaching the fort, he was informed, that if he proceeded, the whole of the prisoners should immediately be put to death. This threat obliged him to desist, and to enter into a cartel for the exchange of the prisoners.

Towards the end of May, general Carleton found himself at the head of 13000 effective regular troops. He now fixed the principal rendezvous at Three Rivers, situated on the north side of the St. Lawrence, midway between Quebec and Montreal, and distant from each about ninety miles. The Sorel, where the Americans were posted, was about 50 miles higher up the St. Lawrence. Only one division of the British under general Frazer, was yet stationed at Three rivers; another commanded by general Nesbit lay near the town, on board the transports; and a greater than either was on its way from Quebec, in several small parties, by land and water, under the generals Carleton, Burgoyne, and others.

An enterprize, of a most extraordinary and perilous nature, was at this time projected, and undertaken by the Americans. About 2000 men, under general Thomson, embarked in boats with a view, to surprize the British troops at Three Rivers. Coasting along the Southern shore till he came opposite to Point du Lac, to avoid the armed vessels and transports, which lay higher up than Three Rivers, he there crossed over, and landed his men in the night, without being observed by the shipping.

Three Rivers being rather a long straggling village than a regular town, it was thought best to attack it by break of day, in four different quarters, at the same time. From Point du Lac to Three Rivers are two roads; one leading along the St. Lawrence; the other nearly parallel, but at a considerable distance from the river. It was determined to advance by the latter. But general Thomson being falsely informed, that three or four hundred of the enemy were posted at three miles distance, instantly marched to dislodge them. On discovering the mistake he returned, but so much time had been lost, that day-light appeared, when they were six miles from their object. The road, moreover, was extrmely bad; so that all hope of succeeding by surprize was now at an end. About sun-rise they were fired on by two armed vessels. An open attack was immediately resolved on. The drums were beat; and the troops moved on, with as much expedition as the badness of the road would permit. Having advanced three miles farther, they were fired on by the ships of war. This obliged them to file off from the river to a circuitous road, which also led to the town; but through woodlands and swamps that were almost impassable. After sustaining great fatigue, and wading a riv-

ulet breaſt-deep, they at length gained the open country near the village. A party of the Britiſh were diſcovered about a mile diſtant. Theſe Col. Wayne immediately attacked. Ardent for action his onſet was vigourous; but he was ſoon repulſed by ſuperior numbers.

In the beginning of the action, general Thomſon left the main body, and went to join the detachment that was engaged; but he loſt his way in the woods, and was never able to return. In the abſence of general Thomſon, the command devolved on Col. St. Clair. Perceiving that the Britiſh troops were landed from on board the tranſports; and were advancing on the river road, to gain the rear of the Americans, he ordered a retreat. This was only to be effected, by returning through the ſame diſmal ſwamps and thickets they had already traverſed. On approaching the Point du Lac, they found that the Britiſh had arrived there before them, in expectation of deſtroying their batteaux. At the ſame time, they learned that they were purſued by another ſtrong party of the Britiſh, who were now within three quarters of a mile of their rear. Thus ſituated, with the enemy both in their front and rear, and hemmed in on one ſide by the St. Lawrence, immediate deſtruction ſeemed inevitable. In this trying dilemma, the only expedient that remained, was to make a forced, but circuitous march, ſo as to get beyond the party in front, and make the beſt of their way to the Sorel, through the woods. Col. St. Clair, having ſome knowledge of the country, from his having ſerved in it in the preceding war, was able to point out a route, in which the river de Loups, which lay in their way, was fordable. This plan ſucceeded. Though purſued by the enemy, they effected their eſcape through the woods, and arrived at the Sorel, with the loſs of no more than two hundred men, moſt of whom were taken priſoners.

Col. St. Clair was unable to proceed in this retreat, from a hurt he had received in his foot. His men generouſly offered to carry him; but this propoſal he declined, and remained, under cover of a large tree which had been blown up by the roots, with two or three other officers, who were exhauſted with fatigue. Here they were ſurrounded by the Britiſh. They nevertheleſs remained undiſcovered till night came on, when they made their eſcape. They had now been almoſt three days without proviſions; but they were kindly relieved by the inhabitants, and in a few days arrived at the Sorel, where they had the ſatisfaction to find that the greater part of the detachment had arrived before them; and alſo that Major Wood, who had been left to guard the batteaux, at Point du Lac, had eſcaped with the whole of them, and arrived ſafely at the Sorel.

General Thomſon was leſs fortunate. He had fallen in with Col. Irvine and ſome other officers. They wandered the whole night in thick ſwamps; and being unable to make their way to the river, they at length took refuge in a houſe, and were there made priſoners.

Thus terminated an adventurous undertaking, which probably would not have been entered on, had the real ſtrength of the Britiſh, at Three Rivers, been known. At any rate, it might have been prudent to abandon the enterprize, as ſoon as they found they were diſcovered, and no hope of ſurpriſing the enemy remained.

The whole of the British army having arrived at Three Rivers, they pushed forward, by land and water, for the Sorel, where they arrived a few hours after the rear of the Americans had *June* 14. left it. General Burgoyne was dispatched at the head of a considerable force, with instructions to pursue the Americans to St. John's; but not to risk any thing, till another column, on his right, should be able to co-operate with him. This cautious conduct gave the retreating army time to escape.

General Sullivan gained great honour by the manner in which this retreat was conducted. He saved all the baggage and public stores; and brought off his sick, who were very numerous. On the first of July he reached Crown-Point; and at that place made his first stand. The want of boats obliged the British to desist from the pursuit, which, for the present, they urged no farther than St. John's. By the retreat of the American army, the friendly Canadians were reduced to a deplorable situation. They expostulated with General Sullivan in the most feeling manner; and with tears in their eyes bewailed their hard fate, earnestly entreating him, not to abandon them to the resentment of their former rulers. The only relief he could afford them was, an assurance of protection, if they accompanied him in his retreat; but this was a distressing alternative to men who had wives, children, and immoveable property. In general, they were under the necessity of casting themselves on the mercy of that government they had offended.

The only circumstance that saved General Sullivan's army, and prevented an immediate invasion of the colonies by General Carlton, was the naval force of the Americans on Lake-Champlain, where the British had not a single vessel. To remove this obstacle engaged his immediate attention. It was found that no less than thirty vessels would be necessary, in order to acquire a superiority on the Lake. Some large vessels had been brought from England; but these must be taken to pieces and reconstructed, owing to the great obstructions which occurred, in the rapids that run between the St. Lawrence and Lake Champlain. Here the exertions of the British seamen and soldiers were almost incredible. They transported over landing places, and dragged up the rapids, thirty long-boats, a number of large flat-bottomed boats, a gondola, and above four hundred batteaux. So great was the expedition with which the business went forward, that the principal vessel, carrying three masts and eighteen twelve pounders, was finished in twenty eight days, from the laying of her keel, completely rigged, and fitted for action; and in three months the whole armament was completed. This activity was absolutely necessary, as their plan was, after taking possession of the Lakes and forts, to push on to Albany, where they might winter commodiously; and be in readiness in the spring, to co-operate with the army at New-York, in so decisive a manner, as to put a speedy and successful termination to the war.

On the part of the Americans, great exertions were made to defend the colonies from an invasion, in this quarter. General Gates took the command in the summer. On his arrival a council of officers was held, for the purpose of consulting on the best means of

guarding againſt the incurſions of the enemy. Some were of opinion that Crown-Point was the beſt place to erect fortifications, for the purpoſe of defence; but the council aſſembled on this occaſion, reſolved, that it would be better to erect their principal works on a ſtrong ground which lies a little to the eaſt of Ticonderoga; and to endeavour, by all means, to maintain a ſuperiority on Lake-Champlain. General Gates accordingly collected his principal force, now conſiſting of 12000 men, at Ticonderoga; and a number of veſſels were conſtructed at Skeneſborough.

But the Americans were not poſſeſſed of the ſame means as the Britiſh, for increaſing their naval armament. Notwithſtanding their endeavours, their liſt amounted to no more than fifteen veſſels, the largeſt of which was a ſchooner, mounting twelve ſix and four pounders. The force of the enemy conſiſted of the ſhip already mentioned, carrying eighteen twelve pounders; two ſtout ſchooners, one of them mounting fourteen, and the other twelve ſix pounders; a radeau, with ſix twenty four and ſix twelve pounders; twenty gun-boats, each carrying a piece of braſs ordnance, from nine to twenty four pounders; and a number of tranſports for the troops, baggage, warlike ſtores, proviſions &c. that were to be conveyed over the Lake, under the protection of the fleet.

The American fleet was commanded by general Arnold, who endeavoured to ſupply the defect of ſtrength by dexterity of management.

On the eleventh of October the Britiſh fleet attacked general Arnold's armament. It was drawn up with great ſkill, between an iſland and the main land, to prevent the Britiſh from ſurrounding it. An action now began, which was maintained, with equal courage on both ſides, for ſome hours. The wind was ſo unfavourable to the Britiſh, that a number of their ſtrongeſt veſſels could not be brought into the action. This leſſened the inequality ſo much, that the principal damage ſuſtained by the Americans, was the loſs of a ſchooner and a gondola. At night the action was diſcontinued. General Arnold, convinced of the great ſuperiority of the enemy, took the opportunity of the night to eſcape with his fleet. Next morning he was entirely out of ſight. The wind proving favourable, the Britiſh purſued, with all the ſail they could crowd, and came up with the Americans near Crown-Point, where a deſperate engagement enſued, and was ſupported with great ſpirit by Arnold, againſt a ſuperior force, for two hours. Some of his veſſels made the beſt of their way to Ticonderoga. Two gallies and five gondolas, which remained, withſtood the whole force of the enemy. At length, general Arnold, finding reſiſtance ineffectual, ran the veſſels on ſhore, and blew them up, having firſt landed his men. He did not quit his own galley till ſhe was in flames, leſt the Britiſh ſhould board her, and ſtrike his flag.

The enemy being now in poſſeſſion of Lake-Champlain, the few continental troops, at Crown-Point, withdrew to the main body, at Ticonderoga. General Carleton took poſſeſſion of the ground from which they had retreated. He ſent two detachments, and ſome veſſels, to reconnoitre the works of the Americans at Ticonderoga; but, finding them too ſtrong, he was deterred from making any attempt

to reduce that poſt. The approach of winter obliged him to return to Canada, for the ſake of comfortable accommodations for the army. But this he did, with the expectation of entering the colonies, by the way of the Lakes, with a powerful force, in the ſpring, when he hoped he ſhould be able to penetrate the country, till he formed a junction with the Britiſh army at New-York.

(To be continued.)

On the IMPROVEMENT *of* WORN-OUT LANDS.

Communicated to the Blockley and Merion Society for promoting Agriculture and Rural Economy, by the Hon. RICHARD PETERS *Eſq. Preſident of the Society.*

WHEN I took the liberty of pointing out defects in our mode of farming, I promiſed to uſe my endeavours to ſuggeſt remedies for evils, which I wiſh prevailed only in our neighbourhood. Exceptions are happily to be met with; but the ſtile of agriculture, under ſimilar circumſtances, is too much alike every where. It is the more unfortunate, as moſt of the inhabitants of exhauſted lands ſeem to be the leaſt ingenious and induſtrious, in calling to their aſſiſtance *ſyſtem* and *experiment*, although they ſtand the moſt in need of them. It would ſeem that, as to them, the old adage of *Neceſſity being the Mother of Invention* ſhould not apply. Their ſpirits, and conſequently their exertions, ſeem to fail them, and to be exhauſted in proportion to the degrees of impoveriſhment attending their ſoil. Even the induſtrious ſow much, and reap little. As long as thoſe who poſſeſs it can clear a piece of new land, they apply themſelves to the tillage of it, and abandon the greater part of the reſidue of their farms, to what they deem unconquerable poverty. If you enquire the reaſons of their negligence, they will aſſign any but the true one. —"They have not ſtock enough to make manure—they have not ſtrength enough to work much land, and muſt therefore work that which yields the moſt—they have not money to purchaſe the means of re-invigorating their farms."—The fact is, that their not making the neceſſary and proper application of their ſtock and ſtrength is the cauſe of the latter misfortune, which includes the reſt. If their ſtock is ſmall, it requires the more attention to produce profit from it; and if their ſtrength is not great enough for *two* acres, let it be applied effectually to *one*. They will find their affairs in this caſe mend as if by magic. Their expenſes will be leſs, and of courſe their profits greater. Their labour will have a limited, and conſequently a practicable, object. Savings in wear and tear of implements, of ſeed, of expenſe in wages, of expenditures to mechanics, with all the conſequences of cultivating a ſmall portion of land well, will immediately follow. They will not fail in the accompliſhment of their object; but they will ceaſe to bring themſelves in debt by miſapplied

endeavours to avoid it. They will find too their *one* acre, well cultivated, more productive than *many* in the old rotine of misinanagement. The difference between a highly improved acre and one even beyond mediocrity is greater than at first view it appears. In England, the proportion of rent between land producing five quarters and that bringing three quarters per acre, is often more than two to one. Yet the produce is not double. But after labour and expense, which are the same in both, the excess is the profit; and the tenants at the highest rents clear the most money and get rich, while it frequently happens that the others become bankrupt.

These observations are the most applicable to those, who, like ourselves, have their lots cast in a country exhausted by bad tillage. With good and systematical culture our situation would have been very different. Under good management our lands would have still continued fertile; and we should not possess them in their present miserable state. The following Remarks are intended to elucidate and confirm my observations on the first evil which I, on a former occasion, pointed out, viz. "*Defects in our Mode of Tillage.*"—

One would think that the bare recital of the common mode of preparation for wheat, too generally accomplished here in one year, though in well-informed countries it is not compleated in less than three, would sufficiently point out the evil and the remedy.

In general, the sod is turned or broken up in the spring, at the most *four*, but more frequently less than *three inches* deep. This sod is composed of a small proportion of grass-roots. The roots of permanent and noxious weeds (whose fibres have formed a mat, pervading the greater part of the surface, where they run horizontally, and, if tap-rooted, striking as deep as the soil will admit) occupy the rest. The seeds of these weeds, both annual and perennial, have been dropping for years, ready to vegetate with the first stirring of the earth. In this wretched situation it is plowed most wretchedly, because superficially, and left without harrowing for two or three months. It is then crossed; at the season of sowing harrowed; the seed is then plowed in, and thus committed to this miserable mass of clods, unbroken in the whole or in part. In this mass are contained undecayed roots of weeds and vegetating blue and unconquered fibrous grasses, which, unlike tap-rooted grasses, such as clover, are pests, and not assistants to grain. The seed is then left to take its chance, with this host of enemies to contend with. Added to these, a crop of Indian corn, *a great exhauster*, is often taken in the season of sowing the grain. This, with its other bad effects; prevents the plough and harrow from having their full operation—This is a true statement of the *general practice*, which, if we do not amend, will prolong the causes of our complaints, that blue grass, garlick, and other weeds, choak and nauseate our crops; insomuch that our produce pays not for our labour and expenses. Can it be supposed that a plant, such as *wheat* (which will penetrate three feet, if the soil will admit of it, and whose horizontal roots have been measured ten feet) will perfect itself in a depth of three or four inches, and in a collection of clods, tussocks of weed-roots, and increasing mats of blue grass, which will prevent the extension of its roots and fibres? Will any one believe that weeds, such

as yellow weed or St. John's wort, white weed or daiſies, or blue graſs, requiring three years, with well attended fallow crops, to deſtroy them, can be ſo backened in one ſeaſon, as not materially to injure the winter grain, if not to choak it in the whole or in part? Let ſuch as conceive this examine the vigour with which weeds grow after the crop is off, and conſider how long wheat occupies the ground, and of courſe what opportunity this crop (contrary to the effect of fallow crops) gives to their increaſe and growth. Let them alſo conſider, that clods contain, as in magazines, untouched fibres, and roots of graſs, and weeds ready to vegetate after a little reſt; and that they alſo lock up ſo many mouths of the earth, which would, in a ſtate of pulverization, receive the nouriſhment and food of plants, from the dews and air. Their candour would then, I truſt, compel them to ſubſcribe to what ſhould be an agricultural maxim—*A farmer ſhould let nothing grow but his crop.*

Indolence makes large demands upon ingenuity to furniſh it with excuſes. Some plauſible reaſons are brought forward to ſupport every bad practice. I have heard it alledged in converſation, and have met with it in a treatiſe on St. Foin (the moſt extenſive rooted vegetable of its tribe) that "Plants ſhould not extend their roots too far, or they will ſpend themſelves in root."—As if nature was not too wiſe to ſuffer an injurious diſproportion in the parts of her productions. Roots are to vegetables (as in that treatiſe it is obſerved) what the inteſtines and ſtomach are to animals. The more and larger theſe are, being always proportioned to the body of which they are parts, the more and greater the ſupplies of nouriſhment received and communicated.

The remedies I will recommend for the evils I have enumerated are—*deep, trench,* and *frequent plowing.*—I have had much experience of the good effects of theſe, on lands as much impoveriſhed as any in this country, and have therefore no occaſion for authorities to ſatifiy myſelf—But I will quote one inſtance, among many which might be produced. The celebrated *Chateauvieux,* a philoſophic and attentive cultivator, ſelected a piece of ground, from which he had taken the ſoil three feet deep, leaving only a ſterile, whitiſh clay. By digging and ſtirring this ſpot, he brought it, *in three years,* to bear *wheat* without manure, as large and fine as any his garden could produce. This ſhews that earth, ſuppoſed barren, can be made, by ſtirring, ſeparating its parts, and expoſure to the influence of the air, as productive as the original ſurface. It fully anſwers the objections to deep and trench-plowing, of *turning up barren earth;* for the worſt earth may be thus made fertile. *Miller* alſo affords inſtances in proof, from the practice of the gardeners about London. They trench their grounds, when they begin to be exhauſted, three feet deep, turning the original ſurface to the bottom.

To perform the operation of *trenching,* which is unneceſſary above once in ſeven years, I have a plough in the common form, but large and ſtrong—the mortiſe in the beam *long,* ſo as to admit of altering the inclination of the coulter, as you would wiſh to go deeper or ſhallower, and the mould-board is conſtructed ſo as to caſt off more earth than the common plough—With this plough, drawn by two oxen

and two horſes, or four of the former, I begin by running as deep a furrow as poſſible—The next operation is made with a light plough and two horſes; which pares off the ſod two inches deep, with a broad furrow, turning this ſod into the trench, with all its weeds, roots, and other peſts to your ſoil. Theſe are completely covered by the large plough, ſomewhat narrower than the ſmall one, which running in the ſame furrow, throws over a body of earth, and buries theſe nuiſances; moſt of which, being placed beyond vegetation, ferment, rot, and become bleſſings, by adding to the fertility of the ſoil. The depth from ten to fourteen inches, as your ſoil will bear.—This, when I can do it, I have finiſhed before winter. The next ſeaſon I give it a light dreſſing with lime, dung, or ſuch other manure as I can obtain, and work it well with Indian corn, the moſt common fallow crop we have. In trenching, I am ſatisfied if I get through three quarters of an acre in a ſhort day, though ſometimes I do more. My plough runs, in the years ſucceeding the trenching, no deeper than is required in good common plowing, perhaps five or ſix inches. I frequently ſow buck-wheat, and plow it in when in full bloſſom, as a green manure and covering crop. I have raiſed potatoes, tap-roots and cabbages, in ground thus prepared, as fallow crops, to great advantage. The effects have anſwered my moſt ſanguine expectations, and I therefore warmly recommend it. Be not uneaſy if your profits are not immemediate. Time and tillage are required to impregnate this new earth, which has in itſelf leſs food for plants, than it will obtain from the air by ſtirring and expoſure. To thoſe who will not confine themſelves to a ſpot within their power to *trench*, I would reccommend (if they will not, as I always prefer, uſe that much neglected but profitable animal, *the ox*) adding another horſe to their plough, and deepening their furrows; making it an object to turn up their fallows in the fall. This will be a ſtep towards *good huſbandry*. If to this they will add one or two extraordinary plowings, the ſucceeding ſeaſon, their crops will amply repay them.

The method I recommend is not without its exceptions, of which the farmer, from ſmall eſſays, muſt inform himſelf. The depth muſt be regulated by the ſtaple; and there are ſome ſoils not proper for wheat, and evidently improper for trenching; though theſe are few. I know too that ſome, and particularly clay-farmers, are attached to their clods; becauſe they ſay they keep the ground from conſolidating; or, as they call it, *ſaddening* or poaching. But it is beſt not to ſow *wheat* on ſuch ſoils, until prepared by good tillage, with ſome manure, and a good courſe of cropping, as well fallow as covering, to precede this which is juſtly ſtiled the *Golden Grain*. When thus prepared, the fermentation introduced by the manure, and perhaps by the phlogiſton, or whatever be the food of plants, will cauſe a repulſion between the particles, and the very nature of the ſoil will be changed. Be the cauſe what it may, (for I pretend to no preciſe knowledge of theſe hidden operations of Nature,) it is well known that ſoil thus treated lies light and looſe; and therefore to keep it aſunder has no occaſion for clods; to which even *ſtones* (as they retain moiſture, and contain no noxious roots or ſeeds) are, in many reſpects, preferable. Nor will this ſoil be *ſpewy*, as it is commonly termed, as the

roots will take deep hold, and want not the ſhelter or gradual nouriſhment, which thoſe who are advocates for clods hold out as neceſſary in ſhallow ploughed grounds. Inſtances are not wanting where good crops have been obtained, harrowed in at one ploughing, late in the autumn, when the vegetation of the weeds and grais has been checked or ended for the ſeaſon. This may, *with good luck*, ſerve a turn. The crop may get the ſtart of the weeds and graſſes; which they revenge by growing with more vigour when it is off. It is on this account bad farming; and ſhould rather be treated as a fortunate exception, than as a rule. I do not here allude to wheat, ſown at one ploughing, on a clean clover-ley—for this is a valuable part of the rotation ſyſtem I offered for your conſideration. I will cloſe this part of the ſubject with a quotation from Duhamell—"It is often more advantageous to encreaſe the fertility of land by *ploughing*, than by *dung*. Becauſe in general only a certain quantity of dung can be had; the produce of twenty acres being ſcarcely ſufficient to produce enough for four or five; whereas the particles of the earth may be divided and ſubdivided almoſt to infinity. The help derived from dung is therefore limited, while no bounds can be ſet to the benefits derived from ploughing." This obſervation of one who was an enthuſiaſt for the drill huſbandry, may be ſomewhat tinged with attachment *to ſyſtem*.—Truth is generally between the extremes, to which the advocates for favourite ſyſtems extend their ſpeculations.—*Manures* muſt never be neglected. But, with them, the practice here recommended ſhould be ſeriouſly attended to. It will render their efficacy more beneficial, and of courſe require the ſmaller quantity. Without them, it is the beſt ſubſtitute, thoſe who cannot or will not obtain them can apply.

With all this, the farmer muſt not be in too great haſte to obtain his ultimate profit. Time is required in the preparation. Fallow crops, which either cover or force tillage, will repay the expenſe in the neceſſary ſtages of improvement. We muſt not crowd into one ſeaſon, the buſineſs which will be ineffectual, unleſs three or four years are devoted to it. When the end is accompliſhed, its effects are not tranſitory, but permanently profitable; and the perſevering cultivator will long continue happy, in the well-earned and rich reward of all his patience and all his toils.

Thus have I endeavoured to comply with the wiſhes of the ſociety, by propoſing what to me appears the "*beſt method of improving worn-out lands.*" If the means I have offered are well known to the experienced agriculturiſts of Europe, or of our own country, they are the more to be relied on. Our profeſſion derives ſubſtantial advantages from well directed *practice* and *experiments* perſeveringly executed. *Theories*, however new, ingenious, and amuſing, are of little uſe, unleſs proved beneficial by theſe indiſputable teſts.

By order of the Society,

RICHARD TUNIS, Secretary.

November 25, 1790.

METHOD *of* GENERATING YEAST;

For the diſcovery of which a premium of twenty pounds was lately given, by the Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, in GREAT BRITAIN.

PROCURE three earthen or wooden veſſels, of different ſizes and apertures; one capable of holding two quarts, another three or four, and the third five or ſix. Boil a quarter of a peck of malt, for about eight or ten minutes, in three pints of water; pour a quart off from the grains into the firſt or leaſt veſſel, and let it ſtand in a cool place till not quite cold, but retaining that degree of heat which the brewers uſually find to be proper, when they begin to work their liquor. Then remove the veſſel into ſome warm ſituation, near a fire, where the heat is between ſeventy and eighty degrees of Fahrenheit; and there let it remain, till the fermentation begins, which will be plainly perceived within thirty hours; add then two quarts more of a like decoction of malt, prepared and cooled in the ſame manner as the firſt and mix the whole in the ſecond or larger veſſel; and ſtir it well in, which muſt be repeated in the uſual way, as it riſes in a common vat. Laſtly, add a ſtill greater quantity of the ſame decoction, to be worked in the largeſt veſſel, which will produce yeaſt enough for a brewing of forty gallons.

On the PERNICIOUS EFFECTS *of* DISTILLED SPIRITS.

To the Senate and Houſe of Repreſentatives of the UNITED STATES, *in Congreſs aſſembled, the* MEMORIAL *of the College of Phyſicians of the City of Philadelphia,**

RESPECTFULL SHEWETH:

THAT they have ſeen with great pleaſure the operation of a National Government which has eſtabliſhed order in the United States.

They rejoice to find amongſt the powers which belong to this government, that of reſtraining, by certain duties, the conſumption of *diſtilled ſpirits* in our country.

It belongs more peculiarly to men of other profeſſions to enumerate the pernicious effects of theſe liquors upon morals and manners. Your memorialiſts will only remark, that a great proportion of the moſt obſtinate, painful, and mortal diſorders which affect the human body, are produced by diſtilled ſpirits.—That they are not only deſtructive to health and life, but that they impair the faculties of the mind, and thereby tend equally to diſhonour our character as a nation, and to degrade our ſpecies as intelligent beings.

* This *Memorial* was lately preſented to both Houſes of *Congreſs*.

Your memorialiſts have no doubt that the rumour of a plague or any other peſtilential diſorder, which might ſweep away thouſands of their fellow-citizens, would produce the moſt vigorous and effectual meaſures in our government, to prevent or ſubdue it. Your memorialiſts can ſee no juſt cauſe why the more certain and extenſive ravages of diſtilled ſpirits, upon human life, ſhould not be guarded againſt with correſponding vigilance and exertions, by the rulers of the United States.

Your memorialiſts beg leave to add further, *that the habitual uſe of diſtilled ſpirits in any caſe whatever, is wholly unneceſſary*—that they neither fortify the body againſt the morbid effects of heat or cold, nor render labour more eaſy, nor more productive—and that there are many articles of diet and drink which are not only ſafe and perfectly ſalutary, but preferable to diſtilled ſpirits for each of the above mentioned purpoſes.

Your memorialiſts have beheld with regret, the feeble influence of reaſon and religion, in reſtraining the evils which they have enumerated.—They center their hopes, therefore, of an efficient remedy for them, in the wiſdom and power of the legiſlature of the United States; and in behalf of the intereſts of humanity to which their profeſſion is cloſely allied, they thus publickly intreat the Congreſs, by their obligations to protect the lives of their conſtituents, and by their regard to the character of our nation, and to the rank of our ſpecies in the ſcale of beings, to impoſe ſuch heavy duties upon all diſtilled ſpirits, as ſhall be effectual to reſtrain their intemperate uſe in our country.

Signed by order of the College,
JOHN REDMAN, Preſident.

Atteſt,
SAMUEL POWEL GRIFFITTS, *Sec'ry.*

Philad. Dec. 27th. 1790.

ACCOUNT *of the* FEMALE ARABS.

(From M. DE BRISON'S *account of his ſhipwreck and captivity.)*

A Mooreſs, to be reckoned a beauty, muſt have long teeth ſticking out of her mouth; the fleſh from her ſhoulder to the elbow, looſe and flabby; her body, legs and thighs prodigiouſly thick; a heavy hobbling gait, and bracelets like the collar of a Daniſh dog upon her arms and legs. In a word, from infancy they endeavour to efface thoſe ſhapes for which they are indebted to nature, in order to ſubſtitute others, highly ridiculous and diſagreeable.

Could any one believe that ſuch hideous and frightful females are jealous, and fond of propagating ſcandal? This, however, is the caſe. If one of them has occaſion to borrow any thing from a neighbour, and if the huſband happens to be in the tent, ſhe veils her face, and preſents herſelf at the entrance, with a timid and trembling air;

but if her neighbour happens to be by herſelf, they begin to rail againſt all their acquaintances who are able to dreſs in a ſuperior ſtyle * The converſation is prolonged, a third neighbour arrives, who puts in her word alſo, ſo that the half of the day is ſpent in ſpeaking ill of others, and they often ſeparate, without recollecting what they had come to borrow. They are alſo remarkably lazy, and fond of gormandizing. When they know that camel's or goat's fleſh is roaſting in any tent, they will expoſe themſelves to every affront, in order to procure ſome of it. Their favourite part is the liver.

Nothing can equal the joy of the Arabs on the birth of a ſon. It may readily be gueſſed, that the mother has neither the aſſiſtance of a midwife nor of a ſurgeon. For the moſt part ſhe is alone at the time of her delivery, ſtretched out upon the ſand, where ſhe depoſits her burthen, and, having taken a drop of milk to ſtrengthen her, remains lying on the ground in a wretched tent incapable of ſheltering her from the inclemency of the weather.

Every woman who brings forth a ſon, in order to manifeſt her joy, blackens her face for the ſpace of forty days; at the birth of a daughter, ſhe blackens only the half of her viſage, and for no more than twenty days. Could theſe poor children obſerve the hideous appearance which their mothers exhibit, they would be frightened from approaching their breaſts. I never ſaw ſuch diſguſting figures.

I could never help ſhuddering when I ſaw the ſeverity with which theſe women treat their children, when yet at the breaſt. They lay them aſleep by giving them ſevere blows upon the back, and to prevent them from crying they pinch them in a moſt unmerciful manner, and twiſt their ſkin with their fingers.

It is generally the women who pull up the poles of the tent when their huſbands have reſolved to change the place of their encampment; they alſo load the camels under the inſpection of their maſters. When the huſband mounts on horſeback, it is the wife who preſents him with his ſpurs, and though ſhe fall and bruiſe herſelf, it is of little importance, provided on his arrival he finds her ready to ſerve him with a baſon of butter-milk.

I have been often ſhocked to ſee one of theſe Arabs (who, not being rich enough to purchaſe a horſe, had mounted upon the bales on the back of his camel) leave to diſmayed females the care of arranging the load which had tumbled down, whilſt he, with the utmoſt indifference, was repoſing himſelf behind a buſh. Nothing can be more arrogant than an Arab to his wife, nothing more humble than one of his wives in his preſence. They are even excluded from the company of their huſbands at their meals; as ſoon as they have ſerved them they retire until their tyrants are pleaſed to call them to give them what they have left. An Arab cannot, without violating the rules of decency, enter the tent of any of his neighbours on any account whatever. When he has occaſion to ſpeak with him he calls

* If theſe *Accompliſhments* are the characteriſtic of ſo refined a part of the creation, as our own ladies, why wonder that ſavages ſhould evince a depravity in their manners, when judged by the touchſtone of common ſenſe or true politeneſs?——E.

him out, and the wife, when she hears the sound of his voice, immediately puts on a veil, and she does this even when she passes one.

I always considered as a fable what was told me respecting the breasts of the Mooresses, but I am now convinced of my error. I have seen, not to mention other instances, one of these women, when in a passion, strike one of her children so hard with one of her breasts, that she knocked the child down to the ground.

Scarcely is a male child able to walk when its mother treats it with the same respect as she treats her husband; that is to say, she prepares food for it, and never eats till her son is served.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

REFLECTIONS *on* MAN.

MUCH has been written on Divinity, and much on humanity. Can we separate them?—If they are to be separated, how nice are their boundaries! Can we argue with respect to GOD, without having respect to his Creatures? Can we reflect on his Creatures without recurring to the Creator? Idea is opposed to immensity; Omnipotence to our confined knowledge; and human argument shrinks from the question.

For what purpose were we placed on this globe? If we have not recourse to religion, what are we? Beings possessed of rationality; rationality, which shews us our weakness; weakness, which has led us to vice; and vice, which must conduct us to misery.

Let us pass over the scenes, which *Philosophers* have described, or attempted to describe. To *Poetry* the handmaid of *Philosophy*, I shall have no recourse at present. When the mistress erred, the servant was not to blame. Yet let it be said, that, however fiction wandered, nature was true; and that man looked up to *God* through the regions of nature.

Let us survey ourselves. What are we? Imagination starts from the idea.

Yet have we not powers? We have—Can we ascertain them?—We will try—.

I was born by a species of miracle; my life has been sustained by a continuance of the same miracle; by repeated miracles I have obtained middle age; and *Death*, which is to lead me to eternal *Life*, is the greatest of all miracles.

'Tis true, there are rugged grounds, over which we must travel. But these are incidental to human nature. Religion rejects chimeras. The hydra of the ancients is justly exploded: and at present we have only false opinion to combat.

To what does false opinion conduct us? To argumentation without a guide, and to sophistry without a gleam of reason. Let im-

agination range throughout the universe; and at length she must rest her foot on this rock—There is a *Supreme*; and morality and religion must conduct us to his throne.

The BLESSINGS *of* SOCIETY.

THE celebrated Abbe Raynal has not scrupled to conclude, that woods, rocks, and caves, have a natural charm not to be found in any civilized country; and that society, far from improving human nature, binds and constrains it. Agreeably to this doctrine, a rude desert, filled with the howlings of wild beasts, the croakings of the raven, the melancholy screeches of the owl; uncultivated plains, covered with brambles and thorns; hunger, nakedness, the dread of ferocious animals, and the being exposed to the bite of venomous reptiles, are capable of producing in man more agreeable sensations than a society, in which laws are a protection against violence, in which the weak are not oppressed by the strong, nor deprived of the fruits of their labour; that a solitude of this kind is more endearing than a life where honest industry supplies sure resources, and places us in a state to obtain the assistance of others, when we are no longer capable of providing for our own necessities: where commerce produces riches, which being divided in certain proportions amongst all, each feels the benefit of the public prosperity: where, while some draw from the land the aliments necessary to life, or expose themselves in the defence of the community, others cultivate their intellectual faculties, extend the limits of the human understanding, and immortalize themselves by works which excite the admiration of posterity.

Because a few half-starved men, still covered with their primitive rudeness; because a few Europeans, who had neither earth nor habitation, without any spirit of industry, or at least being too lazy to work, have banished themselves to the woods, in order to avoid abodes where politeness and public ease were incessantly reproaching their idleness, misery, and grossness; are we to conclude that man is formed to live wild, and that society is a state of violence, contrary to his nature.

The arts and sciences, the offspring of society, will then be for ever annihilated. Poets, orators, and philosophers, will be held in derision. And what we now call taste, discernment, delicacy, and elegance, will be viewed as the reveries of a delirious mind. Virtue, justice, honour, and probity, will not even be known. Brambles, thistles, steril and poisonous herbs, will spring up in our gardens instead of the rose and honey-suckle: our meadows will become morasses; our fertile vallies, overflowed by the rivers, will infect the air with noxious exhalations, and fatal to all other animals, will become the resort of frogs and filthy reptiles.

The lion and the tyger will establish their sway where the goat and the lamb now browze the flowery herb; the sea, which we have subdued, will cease to acknowledge our superiority; the bonds which

unite us, and which become the general intereſt, being broken, there will be no longer any communication between man and man; and each individual, inſtead of finding in his neighbour a prop and ſecurity, will view him as an enemy, bent on his deſtruction. Where ſhall we then find the honour, the probity, the morality, and the virtue, ſince we ſee clearly that they cannot exiſt without ſociety?

Raynal muſt depend very much on the credulity of his readers, to hazard the abſurdities he has done. But, was he perſuaded of what he has advanced? I ſhall be inclined to think ſo, when I ſee him forſaking cities and a peopled country, embracing the dreary ſolitude of the woods, and taſting that happineſs there, which, according to him, is ſo conformable to human nature.

The ſupporters of this doctrine have undoubtedly forgotten that the uſe of ſpeech, which enables us to communicate reciprocally our thoughts; that our weakneſs, our wants, and reaſon which exalts us to ſuch a degree, and inſtructs us to direct to one common end, all our intellectual and corporeal faculties; that the comparative degree of perfection we find in ourſelves alone; are all irrefragable proofs that we were deſtined for ſociety. They ſurely would rather inſiſt that nature, which has created nothing in vain, has beſtowed on us a thouſand uſeleſs faculties and energies, and has denied us many others, which would have been better ſuited to our faculties.

If it were intended that we ſhould paſs our time in foreſts and in the hollows of rocks, and feed upon raw fleſh like animals of prey, why has nature denied us the fur of the bear, with the claws and agility of the lion?

On the CULTURE *of* TURNIPS.

(*From the* NEW-ENGLAND FARMER, *juſt publiſhed in* BOSTON.)

THE ſorts, according to Mr. Miller, are three; the flat, or round ſhaped turnip, the long rooted, and the French turnip.

Of the firſt ſort ſome are green topped, others red purple topped, the yellow, and the early Dutch turnip. The laſt ſort is ſown early in the ſpring, to ſupply the markets in the beginning of ſummer. The green topped turnip is preferred to the reſt, as it grows to a larger ſize.

Turnips love a light ſandy ſoil, or a ſandy loam. It ſhould be made ſoft and fine, but not too rich, leſt the turnips be rank and ill taſted.

Ground that has been newly cleared, yields the largeſt and ſweeteſt turnips; and on ſuch a ſpot there is the leaſt danger from inſects.

Next to new land, ſwarded ground is to be choſen for a crop of turnips; and the way to prepare it is, to plough it pretty deep in the ſpring, and fold it by turning in the ſtock for a good number of nights. For there is ſcarcely any of our fields ſufficiently rich to produce turnips without manuring: And folding hitherto appears to be

the beſt method of enriching the ground for this purpoſe. It ſhould be well harrowed as often as once a week, while the folding is continued, to mix the excrements of the cattle with the ſoil.

The ground ſhould be croſs ploughed, as ſoon as the ſoil is ſufficiently rotten, and reduced by harrowing to a fine tilth, before it is ſowed. Where a good ſtock is kept, as much as an acre may be ſufficiently folded.

The time for ſowing the ſeed is about the middle of July. Doing it on a ſet day is ridiculous; For a time ſhould be choſen when the ground has the right degree of moiſture to make the ſeed vegetate; and if this ſhould happen a week earlier, or a fortnight later than the uſual time, it need not be regretted.

One pound of ſeed is the common allowance for an acre of land. But to guard againſt the fly, the quantity may be a little increaſed. And it is reccommended by judicious writers, that it be a mixture of equal parts of new and old ſeed, that the plants coming up at different times, the one ſort or the other may chance to eſcape the inſects. With this view Mr. Tull conſtructed his turnip drill to lodge the ſeeds at different depths, which it ſeems had the deſired effect.

The ſeed as ſoon as it is ſown muſt be harrowed in with a ſhort tined harrow, and then rolled with a wooden roller, to break the clods, and even the ſurface.

In a week, or thereabouts, the young plants will be up: And if it be a dry ſeaſon, the fly will be apt to deſtroy them: To prevent which ſome powdered ſoot, or lime, may be ſowed very thinly over them, by ſifting, in a dewy morning. This will quicken the growth of the plants, as well as otherwiſe defend them. And the faſter the plants grow, the ſooner they will unfold their rough leaves, and be out of danger of the fly. Or it may anſwer well to ſprinkle the ground with an infuſion of elder, wormwood, or tobacco. But it muſt be done ſeaſonably, as ſoon as the plants are up.

But if the young plants cannot be ſaved, as it may ſometimes ſo happen, the ground may be harrowed, and ſowed again, the coſt of ſeed being but little, to compare with the loſs of a crop.

When the plants have got five or ſix leaves, they ſhould be hoed, and the plants cut out to ſix or eight inches aſunder. In the ſecond hoeing, which ſhould be three or four weeks after the firſt, they ſhould be further thinned, to the diſtance of fourteen or fifteen inches; eſpecially if they are deſigned for the feeding of cattle. The roots growing at ſuch a diſtance will be large, ſo that what is wanting in number, will be more than made up by their bulk. But if they are deſigned for the table, they need not be more than ten inches apart, as overgrown ones are not ſo fit for this purpoſe.

But few have been hitherto raiſed in this country for the feeding of cattle. But if our farmers would follow the directions given above, they would find it eaſy to raiſe hundreds of buſhels for their ſtock. Forty ſeven tons have been the crop of an Iriſh acre, as Mr. Baker teſtifies, under his culture. Thoſe who have made no ſpirited trials, will hardly conceive how much the hoeings will increaſe their crops. Even without hoeing, where the weeds are ſuffered almoſt to ſtifle them, a crop of turnips ſometimes turns out to be profitable:

How much more, if they had ſufficient room, and were not robbed of their nouriſhment?

In England the drill-huſbandry has been applied to turnips, and the produce has exceeded thoſe ſown broad-caſt, which have been hand hoed. The late Lord Viſcount Townſend made a fair trial, and found that the crop of an acre of drilled turnips weighed a ton and a half more than that of an acre in the old huſbandry, though the latter were well hand hoed.

A crop of turnips in the old huſbandry prepares the ground excellently for a crop of wheat, or flax, the following year. But it would be in much better order, if the turnips were horſe-hoed.

In other countries they feed the turnips off of the ground with ſheep; or draw them up for neat cattle, through the winter, as faſt as they are wanted; and even let them ſtand till ſpring when it is convenient.

But in this country, they muſt be harveſted in autumn, about the end of October, or even earlier in ſome places; and then ſtored in cellars, out of the way of the froſt; which muſt needs be a drawback on the profit of this crop. Thoſe that are deſigned for the table in winter, ſhould be buried in, or covered with, dry pit-ſand, to prevent their becoming corky.

The moſt excellent mutton is fatted on turnips, and they are a good food for horned cattle But milch cows ſhould not be fed very plentifully on turnips, as there is ſome danger of their giving the milk an ill taſte.

To produce good turnip-ſeeds, ſome of the beſt roots, of the middling ſize, which have begun to ſprout, ſhould be planted early in the ſpring, in a good ſpot, free from ſhade. They ſhould be two feet aſunder, and the ground muſt be kept clear of weeds till the ſeed is ripe.

The right culture of the French turnip is much the ſame as the above, excepting that they ſhould be allowed more room, and that the ground ſhould be tilled to a greater depth than is neceſſary for the other ſort.

The common practice of tranſplanting them is not good. They get ſtinted in their growth, of which the inſects take the advantage, as they are wont to do of other vegetables, in the ſame ſtate. But while a plant grows rapidly it is ſeldom annoyed by inſects.

They ſhould not be ſown in the ſpring; for this will make them hard and ſticky; nor any earlier than other fall turnips. I have known it anſwer well to ſow both kinds mixed together, where the ſoil was mellow and deep. But I rather prefer ſowing each kind by itſelf.

As there are ſome other inſects which prey upon turnips, beſides the fly, while they are ſeed leaf, it has led ſome to ſet plants of tobacco, perhaps ſix or eight feet apart, among their turnips, which is thought to have an excellent effect.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

IMPARTIAL REVIEW

OF LATE

American Publications.

An Introductory LECTURE *to a courſe of Law Lectures. By* JAMES WILSON, L. L. D. *To which is added, a plan of the Lectures.* Publiſhed in Philadelphia. Price three eighths of a dollar.

THE eſtabliſhment of a Law-ſchool, under a Profeſſor well qualified for the highly important taſk, marks a new Era in the progreſs of ſcience in the United States. That our law education ought to be congenial with the principles of our government, is a propoſition, that prejudice itſelf will hardly venture to controvert. That, in a free country, a knowledge of the great general principles, on which the law reſts, ought to be diffuſed, if poſſible, over the whole community, thoſe who value the rights of freemen, and reflect on the beſt means of preſerving thoſe rights inviolate, will readily acknowledge. For, unleſs men are well informed they are liable to be enſlaved in two ways; either by an unjuſtifiable oppoſition to the meaſures of a good government, or a ſtate of apathy, under the oppreſſive and arbitrary acts of a bad one. Let men be enlightened, and they will avoid both theſe extremes, which are alike deſtructive of liberty.

We ſhall not trouble our readers with any arguments, to ſhow that this education ought to be acquired in our own country. Theſe are fully and forcibly ſtated by the learned author.

In other ages, and in other countries, the progreſs of ſociety, from its rudeſt to its moſt perfect ſtate, has been at beſt, ſlowly progreſſive; but in the United States, the ſucceſſion of improvements has been rapid, in an extraordinary degree. Scarcely have eight years elapſed ſince the independence of our country was acknowledged by the treaty of peace; and yet within this ſhort period, we have eſtabliſhed a form of government, which outſhines the moſt celebrated ſyſtems of ancient or modern times. We hope, and we have reaſon to hope, that our improvements in the arts and ſciences, will keep pace with our improvements in government. In Law there is a wide field, wherein the ingenious author of this introductory lecture, will be able to combine his great political and law knowledge, with his extenſive information on other ſubjects, to great advantage.

In theſe States human nature has aſſumed its native dignity. The mind is fitted for boldneſs of inquiry, and the reception of truth, from whatever ſource it may be derived. If we may judge from this lecture, and from the whole tenor of Dr. Wilſon's political and law

character, he will not be the slave of such precedents as tend to establish error; but will indulge a manly freedom, in exhibiting principles that will bear the test of unprejudiced reason, and of truth.

We shall not attempt to comment on the stile or manner of this elegant performance; but leave the judicious reader, to admire both. From the few extracts we shall select, a judgment may be formed of the whole.

The learned author observes, that the philosophers of Europe have long puzzled themselves, in vain, to discover the origin of some of the most celebrated nations of antiquity. It is common to see men pursue with avidity, things that must ever elude their grasp, and which, perhaps, would be of little value, could they be found; while they neglect things of greater importance, which are within their reach. In no part of the world, perhaps, is it possible to trace a society to its origin, the United States of America accepted: and yet, perhaps, there is no part of the world, in which the attempt has not been made, these United States excepted. A complete history of America, from the settlement of the first colony on these shores, to the establishment of the present Union of the States, would be a valuable present to mankind. We are happy to find that Dr. Wilson means to do justice to the memory of some of those illustrious worthies, whose wisdom was evinced in the first stages of society in America:

If the just and genuine Principles of Society can diffuse a Lustre round the Establishment of Nations; that of the *States* of *America* is *indeed illustrious*. *Fierce Oppression*, rattling in her left Hand, the Chains of *Tyranny*; and brandishing, in her right Hand, the Torch of *Perfecution*, drove our Predeceffors from the Coasts of *Europe*: *Liberty*, benevolent and serene, pointing to a *Cornucopia* on one Side, and to a *Branch of Olive* on the other, invited and conducted them to the *American* Shores.

In discharging the duties of this Office, I shall have the pleasure of presenting to my hearers what, as to the nations in the *Trans-Atlantic* World, must be searched for in vain—an original Compact of a Society, on its first arrival in this Section of the Globe. How the Lawyers and Statesmen, and Antiquarians, and Philosophers of *Europe* would exult on discovering a similar monument of the *Athenian* Commonwealth! And yet, perhaps, the historical monuments of the *States* of *America* are not, *intrinsically* less important or less worthy of attention, than the historical monuments of the *States* of *Greece*. The latter, indeed, are gilded with the gay decorations of *Fable* and *Mythology*; but the former are clothed in the neater and more simple Garb of *Freedom* and *Truth*.

The doctrine of *toleration* in Matters of Religion, reasonable though it certainly is, has not been long known or acknowledged. For its reception and establishment, where it has been received and established, the World has been thought to owe much to the inestimable Writings of the celebrated *Locke*. To the inestimable Writings of that justly celebrated Man let the Tribute of Applause be plenteously paid: But while immortal Honours are bestowed on the Name and Character of *Locke*; why should an ungracious Silence be observed with Regard to the Name and Character of *Calvert*?

Let it be known, that, before the *doctrine* of Toleration was *published* in *Europe*, the *Practice* of it was *established* in *America*. A Law in favour of religious Freedom was passed in *Maryland*, as early as the Year one thousand six hundred and forty-nine.

When my Lord *Baltimore* was afterwards urged—not by the Spirit of Freedom—to consent that this Law should be repealed; with the enlightened Principles of a Man and a Christian, he had the Fortitude to declare, that he never would assent to the Repeal of a Law, which protected the natural Rights of Men, by ensuring to every one Freedom of Action and Thought.

Indeed the Character of this excellent Man has been too little known. He was truly the *Father of his Country*.

Similar to that of *Calvert* has been the Fate of many other valuable Characters in *America. They have been too little known.* To thoſe around them, their modeſt Merits have been too *familiar*, perhaps too *uniform* to attract particular and diſtinguiſhed Attention: By thoſe at a diſtance, the mild and peaceful Voice of their Virtue has not been heard. But to their Memories, Juſtice ſhould be done, as far as it can be done, by a juſt and grateful Country.

In the *European temple of fame, William Penn* is placed by the Side of *Lycurgus*. Will America refuſe a *Temple* to her *Patriots* and her *Heroes?* NO. She will not. The glorious *Dome* already riſes. Its Architecture is of the neateſt and chaſteſt Order; its Dimenſions are ſpacious: Its Proportions are elegant and correct. In its Front a Number of *Niches* are formed. In ſome of them *Statues* are placed. On the left Hand of the *Portal* are the Names and figures of *Warren, Montgomery, Mercer*. On the right Hand are the names and figures of *Calvert, Penn, Franklin*. In the Middle is a *Niche* of larger ſize, and decorated with peculiar Ornaments. On the left Side of it are ſculptured the Trophies of War: On the right, the more precious Emblems of Peace. Above it is repreſented the *Riſing Glory* of the United States. It is without a *Statue* and without a *Name*. Beneath it, in Letters very legible, are *theſe* Words—"FOR THE MOST WORTHY." *By* the enraptured Voice of grateful *America—with* the conſenting Plaudits of an admiring World, the deſignation is *unanimouſly* made. *Late—very late*—may the *Niche* be filled.

In the above elegant extract we are at a loſs which to admire moſt—the grandeur of conception and expreſſion—the correctneſs and beauty of the metaphor—or the delicacy with which an illuſtrious character (who was preſent at the delivery of this lecture) is complimented.

The love of liberty and the love of law are deſcriptive, ſays Dr. Wilſon, of the American character. He then proceeds:

But Law and Liberty cannot rationally become the objects of our *Love*, unleſs they firſt become the Objects of our *Knowledge*. The ſame Courſe of Study, properly directed, will lead us to the Knowledge of *both*. Indeed, neither of them can be *known*, becauſe neither of them can *exiſt* without the other. Without Liberty, Law loſes its Nature and its Name, and becomes Oppreſſion. Without Law Liberty alſo loſes its Nature and its Name, and becomes Licentiouſneſs. In denominating, therefore, that ſcience, by which the Knowledge of *both* is acquired, it is unneceſſary to preſerve, in Terms, the Diſtinction between them. That Science may be named, as it has been named, the *Science of Law*.

Law has too long been ſtudied as an *art*, conſiſting of quirks and quibbles, and a ſervile dependence on *precedents* drawn from *Reports of adjudged caſes*, without reſpect to the great principles of right and wrong. And though it has of late years been cleared of much of its rubbiſh, yet ſtill it is ſtudied as a ſort of mechanical profeſſion, rather than a rational ſcience, by many.

As a *Science*, the Law is far from being ſo diſagreeable or ſo perplexed a Study as it is frequently ſuppoſed to be. *Some*, indeed, involve themſelves in a *thick Miſt* of Terms of Art; and uſe a Language unknown to all, but thoſe of the Profeſſion. By *ſuch* the Knowledge of the Law, like the Myſteries of ſome ancient Divinity, is confined to its *initiated* Votaries; as if all others were in Duty bound, blindly and implicitly to obey. But this ought not to be the Caſe. The Knowledge of thoſe rational Principles on which the Law is founded, ought, eſpecially in a free Government, to be diffuſed over the whole Community.

Dr. Wilſon next enlarges on the utility of a knowledge of the *general principles* of law, to every citizen of a free government, whether ſimply acting in the capacity of a citizen, or diſcharging the important functions of a juror or a legiſlator. Of the laſt he ſays,

Should not he, who is to ſupply the *Deficiencies* of the *exiſting* Law, know when the *exiſting* Law is *defective?* Should not he, who is to introduce *alterations* into the exiſting Law, know in what Inſtances the exiſting Law ought to be *altered?*

He next conſiders the importance of a law-education to profeſſional men; and the propriety of accommodating it to the principles of the government under which we live.

That a *Law Education* is neceſſary for Gentlemen intended for the *Profeſſion of the Law*, it would be as ridiculous to *prove* as to *deny*. In all *other* Countries, *public inſtitutions* bear a ſtanding Teſtimony to this Truth. Ought *this* to be the *only* Country *without them?*

A Queſtion deeply intereſting to the *American States* now preſents itſelf. Should the Elements of a *Law Education*, particularly as it reſpects *Public Law*, be drawn entirely from *another Country*—Or ſhould they be drawn, in Part, at leaſt, from the *Conſtitutions* and *Governments*, and *Laws* of the *United States*, and of the ſeveral States compoſing the Union?

The ſubject, to one ſtanding where I ſtand, is not without its delicacy: Let me, however, treat it with the decent but firm Freedom, which befits an *Independent Citizen*, and a *Profeſſor* in *Independent States*.

Surely I am juſtified in ſaying, that the principles of the Conſtitutions and Governments and Laws of the *United States*, and the *Republicks*, of which they are formed, are materially *Different from* the Principles of the Conſtitution and Government and Laws of *England*; for that is the *only Country*, from the Principles of whoſe Conſtitution and Government and Laws, it will be contended, that the Elements of a law Education ought to be drawn. I preſume to go further: The principles of our Conſtitutions and Governments and Laws are materially *better than* the Principles of the Conſtitution and Government and Laws of *England*.

Permit me to mention one great Principle, the *vital* principle I may well call it, which diffuſes Animation and Vigour through all the others. The Principle I mean, is this, *that the Supreme or Sovereign Power* of the Society reſides in the Citizens at large; and that, therefore, they always *retain* the Right of *aboliſhing*, *altering* or *amending* their *Conſtitution*, at whatever *Time*, and in whatever *Manner* they ſhall deem it expedient.

By *Sir William Blackſtone*, from whoſe Commentaries, a Performance in many Reſpects highly valuable, the Elements of a *foreign* Law Education would probably be borrowed—By *Sir William Blackſtone*, *this* great and fundamental Principle is treated as a political *Chimera*, exiſting only in the Minds of ſome *Theoriſts*; but, in *Practice*, inconſiſtent with the Diſpenſation of any Government upon Earth.

A Revolution *Principle* certainly is, and certainly *ſhould be Taught as* a *Principle* of the Conſtitution of the *United States*, and of every State in the Union.

This Revolution Principle—that, the ſovereign Power reſiding in the *People*, *they* may change their Conſtitution and Government whenever they pleaſe—is not a Principle of *Diſcord*, *Rancour*, or *War*: It is a Principle of *Melioration*, *Contentment*, and *Peace*. It is a Principle not recommended merely by a *flattering Theory*: it is a Principle recommended by *happy Experience*. To the *Teſtimony* of *Pennſylvania*—To the *Teſtimony* of the *United States* I appeal for the *Truth* of what I ſay.

Having entered pretty fully into an examination of Blackſtone's principles; and ſhown that even this great man was led aſtray, by falſe ideas of *ſovereignty*, he concludes his obſervations on this ſubject with the following well-drawn ſimile.

In *Egypt* the *Nile* is an Object truly ſtriking and grand. Its Waters, riſing to a certain Height, and ſpreading to a certain Diſtance, are the Cauſe of *Fertility* and *Plenty*: Swelling higher, and extending further, they produce *Deva*ſ*tation* and *Famine*. This ſtupendous Stream, at ſome Times ſo *beneficial*, at other Times ſo *deſtructive*, has, at *all* Times, formed a Subject of *anxious* Enquiry. To trace its Source has been the unceaſing Aim of the *mighty* and the *learned*. *Kings*, attended with all the Inſtruments of *Strength*; *Sages*, furniſhed with all the Apparatus of *Philoſophy*, have engaged, with Ardour, in the curious Search; but their moſt *patient* and their moſt *powerful* Enterpriſes have been *equally* vain.

The Source of the Nile continued ſtill *unknown*; and becauſe it continued ſtill *unknown*; the Poets fondly fabled that it was to be found only in a *Superior Orb*; and, of Courſe, it was worſhipped as a *Divinity*.

We are told, however, that, at laſt, the Source of the *Nile* has been diſcovered;

and that it consists of—what might have been supposed before the discovery—a *Collection* of *Springs, small* indeed, but *pure*.

The Fate of *Sovereignty* has been similar to that of the *Nile*. Always *magnificent*, always *interesting* to Mankind, it has become alternately their *Blessing* and their *Curse*. Its Origin has often been attempted to be traced. The *Great* and the *Wise* have embarked in the Undertaking; though seldom, it must be owned, with the Spirit of just Enquiry; or in the Direction which leads to important Discovery. The Source of Sovereignty was still concealed beyond some impenetrable Mystery; and, because it was concealed, *Philosophers* and *Politicians*, in this Instance, *gravely taught* what, in the *other*, the Poets had *fondly fabled*, that it must be something *more* than *human*: It was impiously asserted to be *divine*.

Lately, the Enquiry has been recommenced with a different Spirit, and in a new Direction; and although the Discovery of Nothing very *astonishing*, yet the Discovery of something very *useful* and *true*, has been the Result. The *dread and redoubtable Sovereign*, when traced to his ultimate and genuine Source, has been found, as he ought to have been found, in the *free and independent Man*.

This *Truth*, so simple and natural, and yet so neglected or despised, may be appreciated as the *first* and *fundamental Principle* in the Science of Government.

From a difference in the fundamental principles of the constitutions of Great Britain and the United States, he deduces, with great propriety, the necessity of establishing law-schools in our own country.

By the Revolution in the *United States*, a very great *Alteration*—a very great *Improvement*—as we have already seen, has taken Place in *our* System of *Government*: Ought not a *proportioned* Alteration—ought not a *proportioned* Improvement to be introduced into *our* System of *Law Education*?

We have passed the *Red Sea* in Safety: We have survived a tedious and dangerous Journey through the *Wilderness*: We are now in full and peaceable possession of the *promised Land*: Must we, *after all*, return to the *Flesh-pots* of *Egypt*? Is there not Danger, that when one Nation *teaches*, it may, in some instances, *give* the Law to another?

A foundation of *human Happiness*, broader and deeper than any that has heretofore been laid, is now laid in the *United States*: On that broad and deep Foundation, let it be our Pride, as it is our Duty, to build a Superstructure of adequate Extent and Magnificence.

He next points out many parts of the English law which are not applicable in America. Among these he mentions the ecclesiastical jurisdiction and establishment; all those parts which relate to the monarchial and aristocratic branches of the English constitution; many regulations with respect to real estates &c. &c.

The following metaphor concludes with a very just observation;

My *House* of Knowledge is, at present, too small. I feel it my Duty, on many Accounts, to enlarge it. But in *this*, as in every *other* Kind of *Architecture*, I believe it will be found, that he who *adds much*, must *alter some*.

Dr. Wilson draws a comparison between his usefulness as a judge, and as a professor; in which he states the importance of education in its true light.

Society ought to be preserved in Peace, *most unquestionably*. But is this *all*? Ought it not to be *improved* as well as *protected*? Look at *Individuals*: Observe them from *Infancy* to *Youth*, from *Youth* to *Manhood*. Such is the Order of Providence with Regard to *Society*. It is in a *progressive* State, moving on towards Perfection. How is this progressive State to be *assisted* and *accelerated*? Principally by *teaching* the young "*Ideas* how to *shoot*," and the young *Affections* how to *move*.

What *intrinsically* can be more *dignified* than to assist in preparing tender and ingenuous Minds for all the great Purposes, for which they are intended! What, I repeat it, can *intrinsically* be more *dignified* than to assist in forming a *future Cicero*, or a *future Bacon*, without the *Vanity* of the one, and without the *Meanness* of the other!

What are *Laws* without *Manners*? How can Manners be *formed*, but by a *proper Education*?

The lecture concludes with an addreſs to the female part of his audience, on the ſocial duties for which they are intended by Nature. To our fair readers we earneſtly recommend the peruſal of this addreſs, from which we have ſelected the following truly elegant extract.

Female *Beauty* is the *Expreſſion* of female *Virtue*. The pureſt *Complexion*, the fineſt *Features*, the moſt elegant *Shape* are *unintereſting* and *inſipid*, unleſs we can diſcover, by them, the *Emotions* of the *Mind*. How *beautiful* and *engaging*, on the other Hand, are the *Features*, the *Looks*, and the *Geſtures*, while they diſcloſe *Modeſty*, *Senſibility*, and every *ſweet* and *tender Affection!* When theſe appear, there is a "*Soul upon the Countenance.*"

Theſe obſervations enhance the value of Beauty; and ſhew, that to *poſſeſs* and to *admire* it, is to *poſſeſs* and to admire the *Exhibition* of the fineſt Qualities, *intellectual* and *moral*. Theſe obſervations do more: They ſhew how beauty may be *acquired* and *improved* and *preſerved*. When the Beauties of the *Mind* are cultivated, the Countenance becomes *beautifully eloquent* in expreſſing them.

I know very well, that mere *Complexion* and *Shape* enter into the Compoſition of Beauty; But they *form* Beauty only of a *lower* Order. Separate them from *Animation*—ſeparate them from *Senſibility*—ſeparate them from *Virtue*: What are they? The Ingredients that compoſe a beautiful *Picture* or a beautiful *Statue*. I ſay too much; for the *Painters* and the *Statuaries* know that *Expreſſion* is the *Soul* of *mimic*, as well as of *real* Life.

As complexion and ſhape will not ſupply the Place of the *higher Orders* of Beauty: ſo thoſe *higher Orders* have an independent Exiſtence, after the inferior Influence of Complexion and ſhape are gone. Though the *Bloom* of Youth be *faded*; though the *impreſſions* of time be *diſtinctly marked*; yet, while the Countenance *continues* to be *enlivenced* by the *beaming Emanations* of the Mind, it will produce in every Beholder, poſſeſſed of *Senſibility* and *Taſte*, an Effect far more *pleaſing* and far more *laſting* than can be produced by the *prettieſt Piece of uninformed Nature*, however *florid*, however *regular*, and however *young*.

How many purpoſes may be ſerved at once, if Things are done in the proper Way! I have been giving a *Recipe* for the *Improvement* and *Preſervation* of female *Beauty*; but I find, that I have, at the ſame Time, been delivering Inſtructions for the *Culture* and *Refinement* of female *Virtue*; and have been pointing at the important *Purpoſes*, which female virtue is *fitted* and *intended* to accompliſh.

If *Nature* evinces her *Deſigns* by her *Works*; *You* were *deſtined* to *embelliſh*, to *refine* and to *exalt* the *Pleaſures* and *Virtues* of *ſocial* Life.

To *protect* and to *improve* ſocial Life is, as we have ſeen, the *End* of *Government* and *Law*. If, therefore, you have no *Share* in the *Formation*, you have a moſt *intimate Connexion* with the *Effects* of a good Syſtem of Law and Government.

That Plan of Education, which will *produce* or *promote* or *preſerve ſuch* a Syſtem is, conſequently, an Object, *to You* peculiarly important.

To this Introductory Lecture is ſubjoined a *Plan* of the whole courſe, from which it appears that the learned Profeſſor's deſign is great and extenſive. He not only ſets out with principles different from thoſe of any who have gone before him; but he carries his views much farther than they have done.

In the proſecution of this plan, we heartily wiſh him that degree of ſucceſs, which his talents and exertions juſtly merit. There are certainly wiſdom and virtue enough in our country, to encourage ſuch a great and laudable undertaking. Should even ſome of thoſe deſigned for the profeſſion of the law, ſtill conſider it as a mechanical art, and ſtudy it as ſuch, or (like certain animals, which drink muddy water, in preference to that which flows from the pure ſpring,) have recourſe to a foreign ſchool, for what may now be better obtained at home, yet we doubt not, there will be a reſpectable number poſſeſſed of more elevated ideas. This courſe of Lectures will, moreover, be valuable to every young man, who wiſhes to act well the

part of a good citizen through life. It will be eminently so to all, who may, at any time, be called forth, to legislate either for a single State, or for the great Union, composed of all the States.

A TOUR *in* HOLLAND, *in* 1784. *By an* AMERICAN. (*Thin Octavo. Printed at Boston.*)

IT has lately become fashionable with Travellers to use the epistolary manner of communicating their observations to the world. If an author's stile, arrangement, &c. are found fault with, he removes every objection, by assuring the public, that his letters were not originally intended for their perusal; that the importunity of his friends had induced him to publish them; and that, therefore, every fault which might be excused in a private letter, ought to escape censure in a work of this nature.

We are of opinion, that however an author, or his private friends, may be pleased with a slovenly, incorrect, and inelegant style and manner, which they generally designate by the gentle epithets of *easy* and *familiar*; yet the public taste ought not to be depraved, by the perusal of such ill-digested performances.

This Tour is written in a very careless and incorrect manner; and the author's remarks are often of a trifling nature. When we consider, however, that his tour was performed in so short a space of time as one month, we are willing to overlook the more trivial faults, as well in the matter as in the manner; and to give him every credit that he deserves. Many parts of the work are entertaining; and some new information is given, with respect to the interior parts of the country, and the manners of the people. The following extracts are not without merit.

I will endeavour to give you a general idea at once of the principal cities in Holland. Imagine yourself traversing one of these cities, and every other moment upon a neat draw bridge (built with hewn stone and iron railings) leading over a canal running through a spacious street, with a continual commotion of boats and barges upon each side—a clean paved wide street before you, and beautiful houses, with trees bordering the canals. Hold fast to these grand outlines, and suppose yourself immerged in a crowd of industrious mortals, all in pursuit of wealth, and you can easily trace, by your fire side, most of the towns in the Seven Provinces.

Holland is a perfect garden; but a continued fameness presents no new object for the imagination to rest upon.

I am told there was in this village, (Schewling) a kind of waggon constructed by prince Maurice's principal engineer, which they say would go upon the sand along the coast at the rate of seven leagues an hour, by help of sails.

People often bathe here in the summer; but what is very singular, I am assured that the fishermen's daughters, not only guard the men's clothes, but wipe them dry with towels as they leave the water; and this with perfect *sang froid*; which plainly proves how far custom and habit may reconcile us to any thing.

The following is the author's account of the people of Leyden and its vicinity; which is also applicable to the generality of the Hollanders.

They are indeed civil, but have not that pleasing anxiety to help out a stranger, so peculiar to the French women, who hold a foreigner kindly by the button of his coat,

and in a manner hammer words into his brain, with their fore finger preſſing gently upon his ſleeve.

I remarked in this Don Quixote excurſion, that the common claſs of people (ſuch as ſhopkeepers, &c.) are very ſerious—their ſenſibility keen—they are eaſy to bluſh—they cannot ſupport a joke or compliment—the firſt their jealouſy conſtrues into an inſult—the laſt confuſes them: They laugh with pain, and never without cauſe—and when the laugh of the company falls on one pair of ſhoulders, their ſenſibility is always ſtabbed to the quick, and proclaimed openly to the whole company by meſſengers flying from the heart and every irritable part of the body, burſting into a blaze upon their cheeks.

To thoſe who are not already acquainted with the origin of printing, the following account of it may be acceptable.

It was in a foreſt, near Haerlem, that the celebrated Laurenſz Janſez Koſter, alderman of Haerlem, firſt ſuggeſted the invention of printing with types, in 1440. He was rambling careleſsly alone, and amuſing himſelf in cutting out letters in pieces of wood; with which he made ſome impreſſions, which led to the types: And it is to this fortunate chance that mankind owe the facility of communicating their ideas. John Fauſt, a ſervant of the Alderman's, ſtole off the types to Mentz, where he pretended to conjuration, and aſſumed to himſelf the merit of the diſcovery. This is the ſame Doctor Fauſtus ſo much known among the vulgar in America for his league with the devil, &c.

Immediately after dinner we went to ſee the firſt eſſays Koſter made with his wooden types, which are to be ſeen in the type manufactory oppoſite to the old cathedral. His ſtatue, with an elegant Latin inſcription, is in the town houſe.

The extraordinary manner in which the lake of Haerlem was formed, is thus deſcribed.

This lake is fourteen miles over each way, and was formed by an inundation about three centuries paſt, which buried ſeventy two towns and villages in its progreſs, and afforded a perfect repreſentation of the flood in miniature—every living creature, and all the effects in the country, floating promiſcuouſly—ſome on the tops of houſes—others hanging to the limbs of trees, &c. &c.

The following is extracted from our author's account of Sardan, a fine town in North-Holland.

They ſhewed us a ſaw-mill which works forty ſaws at a time.

They have ſo much timber always prepared on hand that they can do as much work as the building of a man of war in a week, by having three months previous notice. In general they build three hundred ſail of merchantmen yearly.

After rambling through this charming and very curious place for ſome hours, we were conducted to a ſmall houſe, in which Peter the great boarded with the common workmen, at the time he learned the ſhip carpenter's trade *incog*, and was the moſt faithful and laborious man in the yard. He afterwards worked at Chatham docks in England.

We have the following characteriſtics of the people in North-Holland.

The genius and cuſtoms of the North-hollanders are different from the other provinces, and many are very ſingular; for inſtance—they puſh their exceſs of neatneſs to ſuch extremes that maſters of houſes, are poſitively obliged by cuſtom to pull off their ſhoes at their *own doors*, where a ſervant ſtands ready with a pair of ſlippers. Again, the front doors are never opened but in caſes of death and marriage. The women are ſtrangely metamorphoſed, and differently dreſſed from the Southholland laſſes: Their heads are bound up with broad gold, or braſs ridges, running acroſs their foreheads, they have light caps, their hair cut ſhort before—prodigious large earrings, and broad flat hats, cocked up in the air, made of calico; which have a ſingular effect: But under all theſe diſadvantages, I ſaw many beautiful faces, but vile ſhapes; the girls look ſo much alike that one would be almoſt led to think they were all ſiſters.

The preliminary article previous to a courtſhip, in Northholland, is very ſingular, but generally obſerved. The miſerable lover ſtands ſhaking under his miſtreſs's window, two or three hours every night, for three months ſucceſſively: If he holds

out the ſiege firmly to the end of this time, he is then admitted to her preſence, upon the intended treaty of matrimony—but never before: ſhe indeed ſometimes deigns to ſolace his trembling doubts, with a word of comfort. An intelligent Engliſh gentleman, reſiding in Holland, whom we met in the ſtreets of Sardan, ſays this cuſtom prevails only in Northholland, and originated from the Spaniards, who reſided among them before the revolution.

They have in Holland, I am told, a curious method of puniſhing criminals, who are confined at a pump, in a ciſtern of water up to their chins, which runs in as faſt as they can pump it out; ſo that they are obliged to exert themſelves until their ſtrength is exhauſted to prevent drowning. I believe this is the method taken to conquer the obſtinacy of thoſe who refuſe to labour.

The great height of a tower at Utrecht is truly aſtoniſhing.

We aſcended the top of the tower, which is three hundred and ſeventy feet high, by four hundred and ſixty ſteps; where we had a moſt ſublime view of all the low country, the Downs, Haerlem lake, and Zuyder Zee; our horizon was rather hazy, which obſtructed a much more extenſive proſpect. I am told that in a clear day, fifty walled cities may be comprehended in one view from this place.

We ſhall conclude with the following miſcellaneous obſervations:

The canals in Holland are ſo much frequented that the roads are neglected, and in general very bad, but moſtly lined with trees, barriers, and turnpikes at ſhort diſtances.

There are no regular poſt coaches, conſequently every one is ſubject to the impoſition of the waggoners.

This country is curious becauſe it reſembles no other; but a continued uniformity ſoon cloys a traveller, though the objects are pleaſing, and keep his mind continually alive. In general, after ſeeing one town you have ſeen the reſt.—The country without their walls holds to the ſame general ſymmetry; a continued marſhy plain covered with cattle. The principal lands are devoted to gardens and paſtures.

The Dutch in high life are a type of the French. Their merchants, and thoſe who rank in this ſtanding, are certainly more graceful and eaſy in their addreſs than the Engliſh of the ſame claſs; but as a nation, they may be conſidered as a dull, cold, diſtant and inhoſpitable people, eſpecially to foreigners, unleſs recommended in warm terms.

A pretty full acount of the principal cities and towns; a general deſcription of each of the States; and a conciſe view of the government of Holland, are inſerted in this volume; but as theſe are generally contained in the writings of other authors, we have not thought it neceſſary to give any extracts from this part of the work.

FOREIGN LITERARY ARTICLES.

ASTRONOMY.

From the JOURNAL DE PHYSIQUE, PAR L'ABBE ROSIER, *&c. For July* 1790.

MR. HERSCHELL had, ſome time ſince, diſcovered a ſhining ſpot in Saturn's ring, which he conſidered as an 8th ſatellite. Upon farther examination, he was ſatisfied of its being a part of the ring itſelf; and that not only this ſpot, but the whole ring, had a rotatory motion, of 10 hours and ſome minutes duration.

CHEMISTRY.

MR. JAMES KEIR, F. R. S, has publiſhed the firſt part of a *New Dictionary* of *Chemiſtry*—1 Vol. 4to—Birmingham.

THE

Columbian Parnaſſiad.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

The CHARMS *of* RELIGION: *In an* EPISTLE *to a* FRIEND;

SINCE Heaven to all ſuch talents has aſſigned,
As may improve the ſtate of human kind;
Since Induſtry can ſolid joys beſtow,
With Virtue if our hearts ſhould truly glow;
Since Vice and Folly we may overcome,
Why ſhould we in their paths thus madly roam!
The harp of David may our hearts rejoice;
Thunder we hear in bold Iſaiah's voice;
And many a prophet, joined with many a ſage,
To our averted eyes expands the page.
Averted eyes!—O man! the charge is juſt;
Like evil's prototype we roll in duſt.
Too many flattering ills our minds entice—
The *duſt* of folly, and the mire of vice.
Blinded by *that*, true bliſs we never know;
And wallowing in the *latter*, ſink in woe.
Whilſt pleaſures o'er the minds of ſome prevail,
Others Ambition court, or Avarice hail.
Pride, Malice, Envy oft aſſert their claim;
And lead, through various labyrinths, to ſhame.—
But ſhame is loſt, and conſcience ſoon is huſhed,
Beneath the weight of diſſipation cruſhed.
Oh! Shame! when thy auſpicious reign is o'er;
Oh! Conſcience! when thy voice is heard no more;
Virtue muſt then retire, with all her train,
And Reaſon *only* hint at future pain.
Diſtracting thought!—there's horror in the ſound!
Muſt earth, where various evils have been found,
Againſt our Maker teach us to rebel;
Virtue renounce for vice, and heaven for hell!
Might not our ſufferings lead us to repoſe?
Have we not frequent hints from preſent woes,
That morals and religion here forgot,
Anguiſh of ſoul muſt be our future lot?
Come then, my friend! from vice and folly ceaſe—
On earth Religion ſhews the paths of peace.
Religion only can true comfort yield;
On her alone ſecurely we may build.

Teaching that venial faults may be forgiven,
Her left hand points to hell—her right to heaven.
Her beauties, painters! to the mind display;
Ye poets! to the heart her charms convey;
And may the preacher's animated voice
Warn us from evil, and direct our choice!

E L I Z A.

Philad. Jan. 7th 1791.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

LETTER LXI. *Of the* SORROWS *of* WERTER, VERSIFIED.

THOUGH Homer fired my youthful breast,
My tender fancy deep impress,
Ere grief had made me smart:
Yet of him Ossian has ta'en place;
His woe-fraught strains, with solemn grace,
Now occupy my heart.

To what a world of direful kind,
The Bard illustrious leads my mind,
'Midst heaths and wilds to stray;
Where the fierce whirlwinds sweep the plain;
Where the moon feebly holds her reign;
And ghosts elude the day.

To hear from off the mountains steep,
The plaintive sounds, from caverns deep,
Of water's dismal roar:
To hear the maiden's doleful cries,
That on her warrior's tomb-stone dies,
Who her did much adore.

I meet this bard of silver hair,
He wanders in the valley drear,
Whilst grief his mind consumes:
His father's footsteps, strives to trace
In vain, for time does them efface;
He only finds their tombs.

The pale moon sinks, amid the waves,
He contemplates her as she laves
Her tresses in the sea:
Reflects on time for ever gone,
When danger pleased and spurred him on,
Till every foe did flee.

When he returned on evening grey,
The moon ſhone on his Bark of prey,
His trophies won, diſplayed:
When by his countenance, I find
Deep-rooted ſorrow fill his mind,
That youth ſo ſoon decayed.

When I perceive that glory bright
To fade ſo ſoon, to ſink in night,
And tottering to the grave:
And when around he caſts an eye
On the cold earth, where he muſt lie,
The fate of e'en the brave.—

The traveller will come, " he cries,
He'll come who ſaw my beauty riſe,
And anxiouſly enquire;
Where is the bard and warrior gone,
Where is Fingal's illuſtrious ſon,
Whither does he retire."

Then ſearching o'er the field and mead,
He lightly on my tomb ſhall tread,
But me he ne'er ſhall find:
Then I, my friend, like a true knight,
My ſword could draw, my prince to right,
And eaſe his troubled mind

And, this atchieved, with grief oppreſt,
Could plunge it deep in my own breaſt,
And eager for him bleed:
To follow him now half divine,
Hero of the Fingalian line,
Who by my hand was freed.

Monmouth, December 30, 1790.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL AYSLUM.

The HAPPINESS *of* AMERICA.

IN other lands, whilſt mad Ambition arms
Man againſt man, and ſounds the dire alarms
Of war and death, how bleſt our happier lot!
Tyrannic rage, domeſtic ſtrife forgot.
No foreign deſpot bids our cannons roar;
Internal Diſcord's voice is heard no more;
Since heaven-born Freedom has commenced her reign,
With all the peaceful virtues in her train.

Here equal laws, reaſon, and truth prevail;
Juſtice preſides, and holds her balanced ſcale;
Wiſdom is honoured; Science lends her aid
To every honeſt art, or uſeful trade:
Here keen Invention too exerts her powers,
And proves the boaſt of genius to be ours.

The active ſwain, who turns the fertile ſoil,
Whilſt health and manly vigour crown his toil,
Enjoys, what thrones of monarchs can't impart,
Peace, independence, and a joyous heart.
Unſhackled Commerce, (ſource of wealth and eaſe!)
Unfurls her canvaſs to the fav'ring breeze,
Our produce wafts, with ſpeed, to diſtant ſhores;
Regions remote, and ſeas unknown, explores.

O ye oppreſſed! who groan in foreign lands,
No more ſubmit to Tyrants' vile commands,
While here a calm retreat, from all your woes,
Invites to freedom, joy, and bleſt repoſe.

W. K.

Philadelphia, Decem. 1790.

VERSES *to* PRUDENCE.

[*Written by an Officer in the Weſt-Indies.*]

HAIL, fav'rite virtue of the wond'rous wiſe!
Whom plodding cits, and faded virgins prize;
But whoſe ſage counſels never could preſcribe
A rule of conduct to the rhyming tribe!
Careleſs they trip the flowery wilds along,
And, ſcorning wealth, content them with—a ſong.
To pleaſure too extravagantly prone,
Thy friendſhip or authority to own;
Their hearts too ſoft, their feelings far too ſtrong,
Nicely to ſcrutinize the right and wrong;
Miſtaking tenderneſs will ſtill deceive,
And thoughtleſs generoſity believe.
They fly to pleaſure, and they toil for fame,
But loiter ſtill when intereſt is the game,
The lazy Bard, though poverty appear,
To Prudence never lends a docile ear:
Her ſwift approach reluctantly he ſees,
Yet ſacrifices fortune to his eaſe.
In court, or city, or in ruſtic grove,
In buſ'neſs, friendſhip, enmity, or love,
Into a thouſand errors he will run,
Thy pupils ever have the power to ſhun.

Yet hard the heart, and ſordid is the ſoul,
That ne'er in youth diſputed thy control!
Whatever faults my foes have found in me,
They ne'er reproached me as a ſlave to thee!
Oft have I ſpurned thy ſalutary ſway,
While Folly led me her fantaſtic way;
When Beauty ſmiled, I gave thee oft the ſlip,
And fear'd no falſehood from the roſy lip;
I choſe the labyrinth without a clew,
And fled ſo faſt, thou ſcarcely could'ſt purſue.
But lay, grim goddeſs, all the paſt aſide,
Since now I ſometimes take thee for my guide;
Yet think not e'er (for ſuch I ne'er ſhall be!)
To find a zealous votary in me;
For, ſtill no darling deity of mine,
I ne'er ſhall bow devoutly at thy ſhrine.
To Sorrow's tale I ne'er can ſhut my ear;
Nor can experience make me inſincere:
I know mankind, and for my ſkill have paid,
Yet ſtill muſt truſt, and may be ſtill betrayed.

An even path thy dull adherents keep,
As through life's pilgrimage they ſafely creep;
No pleaſure tempts them e'er to go aſtray;
No pity moves them from the beaten way.
Phlegmatic ſouls, whom friendſhip ne'er could fire,
And hearts that never felt a ſoft deſire;
Curſed with a gloomy jealouſy of mind,
That dreads ſome villainy from all mankind;
No mutual confidence they e'er poſſeſſed,
But keep their ſecrets locked within their breaſt;
Contagious pleaſure they have never known,
And ſcarce e'er felt a rapture of their own;
Too wiſe another's agonies to ſhare,
They have no tears of ſympathy to ſpare.
Whate'er contributes to their eaſe, or health,
Secures their ſafety, or augments their wealth,
Is all the object of their wiſh and prayer,
And all their ſtudy, happineſs, and care;
Obtaining theſe they heed no other's pain,
Or, diſappointed, care not who obtain.
From day to day they dully trudge along,
If not quite right, yet ſeldom very wrong:
With cautious ſteps they tread ſecure from ſhame,
But never, never feel a wiſh for fame;
Too wary often to incur a fall,
Yet far too fearful e'er to riſe at all;
No bright invention have they e'er eſſayed,
No great improvement have they ever made.
Had all mankind ſubmitted to thy reign,
What thirſt of knowledge had been given in vain!
Who then the wilds of ſcience would explore?

Or who had wandered from his native ſhore?
In vain might breezes blow, and oceans roll,
Could'ſt thou depreſs the enterpriſing ſoul!
Thy ſubjects are the ſpiritleſs and cold;
The ſons of Genius are the raſh and bold;
Ye Indian realms, where fate has bid me ſteer,
Did ever Prudence ſend Columbus here?

Thou, ſtubborn virtue of the ſelfiſh heart,
In gen'rous boſoms claim'ſt but little part.
Didſt thou e'er glow with charity divine?
Or was Compaſſion e'er a child of thine?
Yet let me, Prudence, never widely rove
From the ſecure, but gloomy path you love!
As an attendant be thou near me ſtill,
But not the tyrant maſter of my will.
Let not the man I love to call my friend,
Meanly to court thee ever condeſcend;
Let him be ſuch as can at times purſue,
But, forced by feelings, can forſake thee too;
Be he, like all the generous and brave,
Oft thy companion, but be ne'er thy ſlave.
But, above all, oh! let me never prove
Thee the firſt virtue of the maid I love!
By thee directed, let her croſs the brake
That hides, in flowery ſhrubs, the wily ſnake;
But when in open day ſhe ſafely treads
The wide champaign, and undeceitful meads,
Thy narrow footſteps let her trace no more,
But freely frolic, now the danger's o'er.
Though ſtill ſo near, thy path ſhe ſoon may find,
Yet let her keep thy Gorgon face behind.
Though ſtern thy power o'er ſtoic hearts may be,
She loves but little who ne'er laughed at thee.

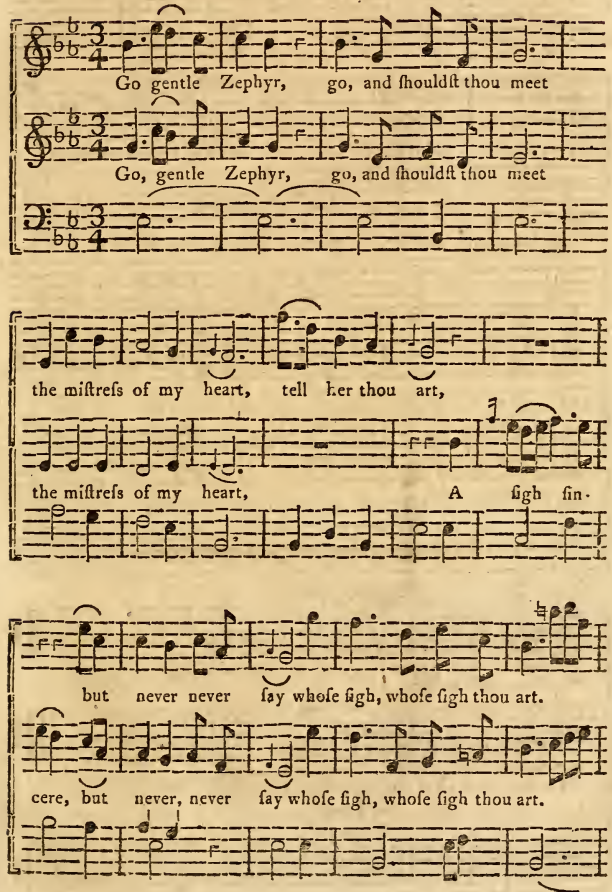
On P I T Y.

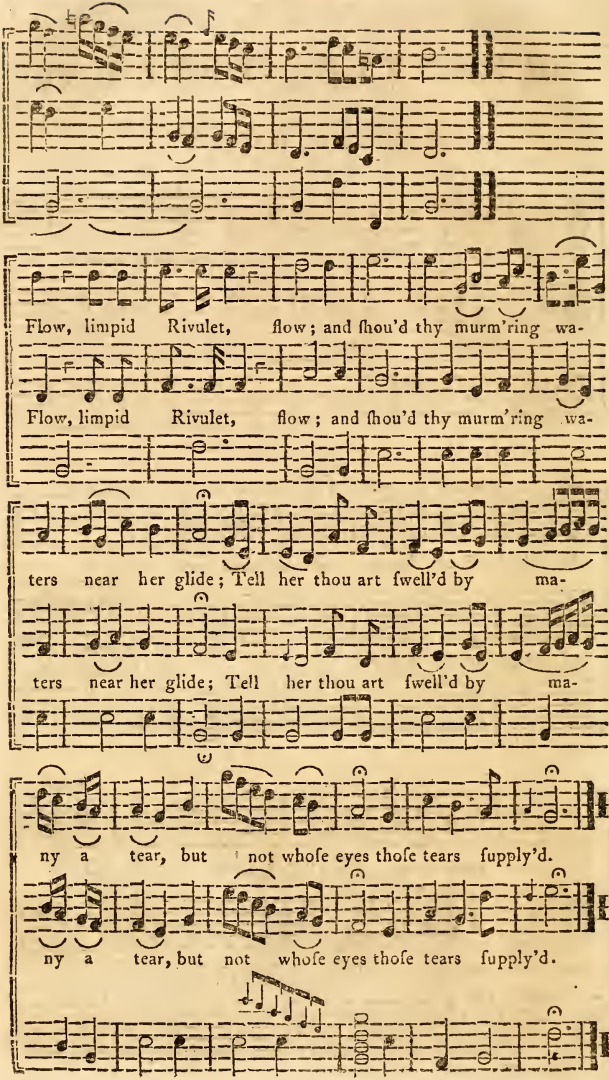
TO Pity's mild breaſt ſhall the ſigh
Which is breath'd from the boſom of woe,
In language reſiſtleſs apply
For the boon which ſhe loves to beſtow.

Should fortune deny the rich ſtore,
Which could free from the anguiſh of need,
Yet the tears of compaſſion would pour,
And the heart of benevolence bleed.

Go GENTLE ZEPHYR, *&c.*

A Celebrated DUET.




Flow, limpid Rivulet, flow; and ſhou'd thy murm'ring wa-
Flow, limpid Rivulet, flow; and ſhou'd thy murm'ring wa-
ters near her glide; Tell her thou art ſwell'd by ma-
ters near her glide; Tell her thou art ſwell'd by ma-
ny a tear, but not whoſe eyes thoſe tears ſupply'd.
ny a tear, but not whoſe eyes thoſe tears ſupply'd.

THE

The CHRONICLE.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

CONVENTION,

Between his BRITANNIC MAJESTY, *and the* KING *of* SPAIN. *Signed at the* Escurial, *the 28th of October* 1790.

THEIR Britannic and Catholic Majesties, being desirous of terminating, by a speedy and solid agreement, the differences which have lately arisen between the two crowns, have judged that the best way of attaining this salutary object, would be that of an amicable arrangement, which, setting aside all retrospective discussion of the rights and pretensions of the two parties, should fix their respective situation for the future on a basis conformable to their true interests, as well as to the mutual desire with which their said majesties are animated, of establishing with each other, in every thing, and in all places the most perfect friendship, harmony and good correspondence. In this view, they have named and constituted for their plenipotentiaries; to wit: on the part of his Britannic Majesty, Alleyne Fitz Herbert, Esq. one of his said Majesty's privy council in Great Britain and Ireland, and his ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to his Catholic Majesty: and, on the part of his Catholic Majesty, Don Joseph Monino, Count of Florida Blanca, knight of the grand cross of the royal Spanish order of Charles III. councillor of state, to his said majesty, and his principal secretary of state, and of the dispatches: who after having communicated to each other their respective full powers, have agreed upon the following articles:

Article I. It is agreed that the buildings and tracts of land, situated on the north west coast of the continent of North America, or on Islands adjacent to that continent, of which the subjects of his Britannic majesty were dispossessed, about the month of April, 1789, by a Spanish officer, shall be restored to the said British subjects.

Article II. And further, that a just reparation shall be made, according to the nature of the case, for all acts of violence or hostility, which may have been committed, subsequent to the month of April 1789, by the subjects of either of the contracting parties against the subjects of the other—and that, in case any of the said respective subjects shall, since the same period, have been forcibly dispossessed of their lands, buildings, vessels, merchandize, or other property whatever, on the said continent or on the seas or Islands adjacent, they shall be re-established in the possession thereof, or a just compensation shall be made to them for the losses which they shall have sustained.

Article III. And, in order to strengthen the bonds of friendship, and to preserve, in future, a perfect harmony and good understanding between the two contracting parties, it is agreed that their respective subjects shall not be disturbed or molested, either in navigating or carrying on their fisheries in the Pacific Ocean, or in the South Seas or in landing on the coasts of those seas, in places not already occupied, for the purpose of carrying on their commerce with the natives of the country, or of making settlements there; the whole subject, nevertheless, to the restrictions and provisions specified in the three following articles.

Article IV. His Britannic Majesty engages to take the most effectual measures to prevent the navigation and fishery of his subjects in the Pacific Ocean, or in the South Seas, from being made a pretext for illicit trade with the Spanish settlements; and, with this view, it is moreover expressly stipulated, that British subjects shall not navigate, or carry on their fishery in the said seas, within the space of ten sea leagues from any part of the coast already occupied by Spain.

Article V. It is agreed, that as well in the places which are to be restored to the British subjects, by virtue of the first article, as in all other parts of the north western coasts of North America, or of the Islands adjacent, situated to the north of the parts of the said coast already occupied by Spain, wherever the subjects of either of

the two powers shall have made settlements since the month of April, 1789, or shall hereafter make any, the subjects of the other shall have free access, and shall carry on their trade, without any disturbance or molestation.

Article VI. It is further agreed, with respect to the eastern and western coasts of South America, and to the Islands adjacent, that no settlement shall be formed hereafter, by the respective subjects, in such parts of those coasts as are situated to the south of those parts of the same coasts, and of the Islands adjacent, which are already occupied by Spain: provided that the said respective subjects shall retain the liberty of landing on the coasts and Islands so situated, for the purposes of their fishery, and of erecting thereon huts, and other temporary buildings, serving only for those purposes.

Article VII. In all cases of complaint or infraction of the articles of the convention, the officers of either party, without permitting themselves previously to commit any violence or act of force, shall be bound to make an exact report of the affair, and of its circumstances, to their respective courts who will terminate such differences in an amicable manner.

Article VIII. The present convention shall be ratified and confirmed in the space of six weeks, to be computed from the day of its signature, or sooner if it can be done.

In witness whereof, we, the undersigned plenipotentiaries of their Britannic and Catholic Majesties, have, in their names, and in virtue of our respective full powers, signed the present convention, and set thereto the seals of our arms.

Done at the palace of St. Laurence, the twenty-eighth of October, one thousand seven hundred and ninety.

ALLEYNE FITZ-HERBERT. (L. S.)
EL CONDE DE FLORIDA BLANCA. (L. S.)

DOMESTIC INTELLIGENCE.

ALBANY.

WHILE through the medium of newspapers, from every part of the United States we receive daily accounts of the progress of Manufactories in our infant country, it affords us a singular pleasure that we have it in our power to present our readers with the flattering prospects we have of vieing, in this respect, with any other town on the continent. As the peculiar advantages of our situation, entitle us to look forward to the period when a commerce great beyond calculation, must circulate through this place—we have equal reasons, from the advances already made, to anticipate the flourishing state of our manufactories. As an instance of which, we give the public the following.

Description of the works lately erected by Mr, James Caldwell, of this city, merchant, who is sole proprietor thereof.

The buildings belonging to these works, extend, on a line along the front, about 200 feet.—That part which contains the machinery of the mills, is 42 feet front.---One water wheel of three and a half feet wide, with one and a half inch water, by an upright shaft, puts in motion the snuff-mill---which consists of 4 mortars, 16 rollers and a snuff-bolt.——A mustard-mill---with 2 large rollers, 4 mortars and stampers.---A chocolate mill---with a run of stones and cocoa-roaster.---An engine, for cutting smoaking tobacco. A machine for cutting the tobacco for the snuff-mill, and a large grind-stone, for the use of the works. It likewife gives motion to an elegant Colossal figure of a man, under a pediment, in the front of the building, represented in the act of turning a winch, from which all the machinery apparently receives motion. The tobacco is pressed and brought to the knife of the cutting-machine on a plan entirely new, without manual labour---All these works, together with a kiln for preparing the mustard seed, are on the first and second floor. Any part may be set in motion or stopt without effecting the others. On the third floor is a kiln for tobacco----both kilns are on a new and improved construction. Here are a number of hands constantly employed in packing snuff and tobacco.

The house for drying and curing tobacco, adjoins the mill on the west, and is 70 feet in front. The fire-places are constructed with such improvements, as not to re-

quire one fourth the wood commonly used for the like purposes. The upper part is occupied as a store-room for tobacco.

The house on the west contains the *Tobacco-Manufactory*. On the lower floor of which are nine complete presses, and a room where the tobacco is formed into rolls, in a manner never before discovered, without either pins or thorns---Of which invention the merit is solely due to the manufacturer. On the second floor the spinning is done---where twenty four hands are constantly employed in the various parts of the business; Here is a machine, by which one boy can turn for 6 or 8 tables---and can stop either, when occasion requires, without interrupting the rest. This last improvement has often been attempted both in Europe and America, but has never before been brought to the perfection it is here. The 3d floor is a store room.

The water is conveyed to the mill by a trench, and from thence passes off by a subterraneous conduit, over which is the main road; and the water-wheel is so sheltered that neither can be perceived from the inside or outside of the mill.

Besides these buildings there is an elegant and commodious dwelling house and several out-houses belonging to the manufactery---all disposed in such a manner as to make a beautiful appearance. They are situated about one mile from the center of the city of Albany, and four hundred yards west of the mansion house of Stephen Van Rensselaer, Esq. (the proprietor of the manor of Rensselaerwyck) at the entrance of that delightful valley, through which a never-failing stream passes, that turns a number of other mills within sight of each other.

Mr. Christoper Batterman, a young man, a native of Boston, is the architect, to whose ingenuity the plan of the works and the various improvements in the execution are to be ascribed, as he was solely entrusted by Mr. Caldwell, with the construction of them——He is at present in this city, and intends making it the place of his residence.

The snuff-mill is in such high perfection, that by going only 9 months in the year, more snuff can be produced, it is said, than is consumed annually in the northern part of America.

PHILADELPHIA.

Letter from the President of the National Assembly of FRANCE, *to the President of the* UNITED STATES.

MR. PRESIDENT,

THE National Assembly has worn, during three days, mourning for Benjamin Franklin, your fellow-citizen, your friend, and one of the most useful of your co-operators in the establishment of American liberty. They charge me to communicate their resolution to the Congress of the United States. In consequence, I have the honour to address to you, Mr. President, the extract from the proceedings of their session of the 11th of June, which contains that deliberation.

The National Assembly have not been stopped in their decree by the consideration that Franklin was a stranger:—great men are the fathers of universal humanity:—— their loss ought to be felt, as a common misfortune, by all the tribes of the great human family: and it belongs, without doubt, to a nation still affected by all the sentiments, which accompany the atchievement of their liberty, and which owes its enfranchisement essentially to the progress of the public reason, to be the first to give the example of the filial gratitude of the people towards their true benefactors;—besides that these ideas, and this example, are so proper to disseminate a happy emulation of patriotism, and thus to extend more and more the empire of reason and virtue, which could not fail promptly to determine a body, devoted to the most important legislative combinations; charged with assuring to the French the rights of men and citizens; it has believed, without doubt, that fruitful and great truths were likewise numbered among the rights of man.

The name of *Benjamin Franklin* will be immortal in the records of freedom and Philosophy: but it is more particularly dear to a country, where conducted by the most sublime mission, this venerable man knew very soon to acquire an infinite number of friends and admirers, as well by the simplicity and sweetness of his manners, as by the purity of his principles, the extent of his knowledge, and the charms of his mind.

It will be remembered, that every ſucceſs, which he obtained in his important negociation, was applauded and celebrated (ſo to expreſs it) all over France, as ſo many crowns conferred on genius and virtue.

Even then the ſentiment of our rights exiſted in the bottom of our ſouls. It was eaſily perceived, that it feelingly mingled in the intereſt which we took in behalf of America, and in the public vows, which we preferred for your liberty.

At laſt the hour of the French has arrived: we love to think, that the citizens of the United States have not regarded with indifference our firſt ſteps towards liberty. Twenty-ſix millions of men, breaking their chains, and ſeriouſly occupied in giving themſelves a durable conſtitution, are not unworthy the eſteem of a generous people who have preceded them in that noble career.

We hope they will learn, with intereſt, the funeral homage which we have rendered to the Neſtor of America. May this ſolemn act of fraternal friendſhip ſerve more and more to bind the tie, which ought to unite two free nations! May the common enjoyment of liberty ſhed itſelf over the whole globe, and become an indiſſoluble chain of connexion among all the people of the earth! For ought they not to perceive, that they will advance more ſtedfaſtly and more certainly to their true happineſs, in underſtanding and loving each other, than in being jealous and fighting?

May the Congreſs of the United States, and the National Aſſembly of France, be the firſt to furniſh this fine ſpectacle to the world! and may the individuals of the two nations connect themſelves by a mutual affection, worthy of the friendſhip which unites the two men, at this day moſt illuſtrious by their exertions for liberty—WASHINGTON and LA FAYETTE?

Permit me, Mr. Preſident, to offer, on this occaſion, my particular homage of eſteem and admiration.

I have the honour to be, with reſpectful conſideration,

Mr. Preſident, your moſt humble and moſt obedient ſervant,

SIEYES, *Preſident.*

Paris, 20th June, 1790.

DECREE *of the* NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, *of the 11th June*, 1790.

THE National Aſſembly decree, that their members ſhall wear, during three days, mourning for Benjamin Franklin, to commence on Monday next;—that the diſcourſe pronounced on this occaſion, be printed; and that the Preſident write to the American Congreſs, in the name of the Aſſembly.

Compared with the original by us, Preſident and Secretaries of the National Aſſembly, at Paris, 20th June, 1790,

SIEYES, *Preſident.*
GOURDAU, *Sec.*
FELIX DE PARDIEU, *Sec.*
(L. S) DUMOUCHET, *Sec.*

SUNDAY SCHOOLS.

On the 16th of December, 1790 *a number of gentlemen met, for the purpoſe of taking into conſideration the eſtabliſhment of Firſt Day, or Sunday Schools in this city. After mature inveſtigation, they reſolved to form themſelves into a Society, and appointed a committee to frame a conſtitution. The report of this committee was debated at a ſubſequent meeting, at which the Right Rev.* WILLIAM WHITE *preſided, and agreed to as follows:*

WHEREAS the good education of youth is of the firſt importance to ſociety—and numbers of children, the offſpring of indigent parents, have not proper opportunities of inſtruction, previous to their being apprenticed to trades; and whereas among the youth of every large city, various inſtances occur, of the firſt day of the week, called Sunday, a day which ought to be devoted to religious improvement, being employed to the worſt of purpoſes, the depravation of morals and manners: It is therefore the opinion of ſundry perſons, that the eſtabliſhment of Firſt Day or Sunday Schools, in this city, would be of eſſential advantage to the riſing generation: and for effecting that benevolent purpoſe, they have formed themſelves into a ſociety, by

the name of "The Society for the inſtitution and ſupport of Firſt Day or Sunday Schools, in the city of Philadelphia, and the diſtricts of Southwark and the Northern Liberties;" and have adopted the following

CONSTITUTION.

I. The inſtruction to be given in theſe Schools ſhall be confined to reading and writing; which ſhall be from the Bible, or ſelect paſſages from it,

II. This Society ſhall conſiſt of all thoſe perſons who do now, or may hereafter ſubſcribe this conſtitution, and pay to the Treaſurer at the time of ſuch ſubſcription, and annually afterwards, the ſum of one dollar, for the ſupport of the inſtitution. But every perſon paying into the hands of the Treaſurer ten dollars, and ſigning this conſtitution, ſhall receive a certificate, entitling him to membership during life, without being ſubjected to any annual payment. Any member who ſhall for two years diſcontinue his annual payments, ſhall ceaſe to belong to the Society.

III. The officers of the Society ſhall conſiſt of a Preſident, Vice-Preſident, Treaſurer, and Secretary, who ſhall be choſen annually on the ſecond Third-Day called Tueſday, in the month called January, by a majority of the members then met: alſo of twelve viſitors, who ſhall be choſen, in the firſt inſtance, on the ſame day: three of who ſhall be relieved from duty, at each quarterly meeting, by the election of three other members of the Society: to ſupply their places. The Viſitors relieved ſhall vacate their offices in the firſt inſtance by lot. Afterwards they ſhall ceaſe to act in that capacity by rotation.

IV. The Preſident, or, in his abſence, the Vice-Preſident, or, in the abſence of both, a Chairman choſen for the time, ſhall preſide in all the meetings, and ſubſcribe all the acts of the Society. In balloting, and in all queſtions where there may be an equal diviſion of voices, he ſhall have the caſting vote. He ſhall have the power, and it ſhall be his duty, to convene the Society at any time between the ſtated meetings, if he ſhall judge it neceſſary. He ſhall likewiſe call ſpecial meetings, at all times when four members of the Society ſhall concur in requeſting them.

V. The Secretary ſhall keep fair and regular minutes of the tranſactions of the Society, in a book to be provided for that purpoſe.

VI. The Treaſurer ſhall account for all the monies of the Society paid into his hands, and for all their monies expended; which latter ſhall be by order of the Society, or of the Board of Viſitors. He ſhall render an account of the funds of the Society to the Board of Viſitors annually, and at other times when required by them. Before he ſhall enter upon the duties of his office, he ſhall give a bond to the Preſident for the time being, with one or more ſufficient ſureties, in the penalty of ſuch ſum as ſhall be fixed from time to time by the board of Viſitors, for the faithful execution of the truſt repoſed in him.

VII. The Board of Viſitors, or a Committee of them, ſhall, once in every month, viſit the ſchools; and ſhall eſtabliſh ſuch rules as they may think neceſſary for the good government thereof. All rules made by them, ſhall be reported to the Society, at their next ſubſequent meeting, and be ſubject to their amendment or allowance. The Board ſhall inform the Society at every quarterly meeting, of the ſtate of the Schools, and the progreſs of the pupils. They ſhall alſo contract with maſters, and for ſchool-rooms, and tranſact all neceſſary buſineſs, which ſhall occur in the receſs of the Society. They ſhall have a right to draw upon the Treaſurer for ſuch ſums of money as neceſſary to carry on the buſineſs of their appointment. Three members of the Board ſhall be a quorom.

VIII. Eight members of the Society being met, ſhall be a ſufficient quorum for tranſacting any of the buſineſs of the Society, except adding to, or altering theſe rules: Provided that due notice ſhall have been previouſly given of every meeting.

IX. The Society ſhall meet on the ſecond Third-Day, called Tueſday, in the months called January, April, July, and October, in every year, at ſuch place as ſhall be agreed upon by the Society from time to time.

X. The hours of attendance at the Schools to be opened, ſhall be ſo regulated as not to interfere with the hours appointed for religious worſhip, in the forenoon of the firſt day of the week, called Sunday.

XI. No additions to or alterations of this Conſtitution ſhall be made, but at a ſtated meeting, (having been propoſed at a previous one) where there are at leaſt twenty members preſent.

A Liſt *of the* Births *and* Deaths *in the various* religious Societies *in the City of* Philadelphia, *from* September 1, 1788, *to* September 1, 1789.

Names of the Societies, &c.	Births.		Deaths.		Total Births.	Total Deaths.
	Male	*Fem.*	*Male*	*Fem.*		
German Lutheran Church,	216	197	82	77	413	159
German Reformed Church,	64	61	16	14	125	30
Chriſt's Church and St. Peter's Church,	81	89	75	79	170	154
St. Paul's Church,	31	37	14	24	68	38
Society of Friends,	151	157	58	83	308	141
Roman Catholic Church,	114	120	37	28	234	65
Firſt Preſbyterian Church,	23	27	15	20	50	35
Second Preſbyterian Church,	29	26	23	24	55	47
Third Preſbyterian Church,	57	75	29	18	132	47
Scotch Preſbyterian Church,	6	8	8	5	14	13
Society of Free Quakers,	11	13	6	5	24	11
Moravian Church,	3	1	3	4	4	7
Swediſh Church,	7	6	5	4	13	9
Baptiſt Church,	15	14	6	7	29	13
Univerſal Baptiſt Church,	1	2	1	0	3	1
Methodiſt Church,	23	22	9	11	45	20
Jewiſh or Hebrew Church,	1	1	0	0	2	0
Potter's Field, white People,	*91	96	89	53	187	142
———, black People,	†69	74	38	26	143	64
Total Number	993	1026	514	482	2019	996

A Liſt *of the* Births *and* Deaths *of the various* religious Societies *in the City of* Philadelphia, *from* September 1, 1789, *to* September 1, 1790.

Names of the Societies, &c.	Births.		Deaths.		Total Births.	Total Deaths.
	Male	*Fem.*	*Male*	*Fem.*		
German Lutheran Church,	219	196	107	96	415	203
German Reformed Church,	85	73	48	21	158	69
Chriſt's Church and St. Peter's Church,	79	87	67	69	166	136
St. Paul's Church,	30	36	16	20	66	36
Society of Friends,	153	160	75	79	313	154
Roman Catholic Church,	127	122	29	38	249	67
Firſt Preſbyterian Church,	27	31	16	19	58	35
Second Preſbyterian Church,	29	38	26	21	67	47
Third Preſbyterian Church,	59	67	12	13	126	25
Scotch Preſbyterian Church,	18	13	3	2	31	5
Society of Free Quakers,	9	12	4	3	21	7
Moravian Church,	3	4	0	1	7	1
Swediſh Church,	7	8	6	3	15	9
Baptiſt Church,	14	16	6	8	30	14
Univerſal Baptiſt Church,	2	2	0	1	4	1
Methodiſt Church,	19	21	10	9	40	19
Jewiſh or Hebrew Church,	1	2	2	1	3	3
Potter's Field, white People,	*94	85	87	49	179	136
———, black People,	†67	79	55	33	146	68
Total Number	1042	1052	549	486	2094	1035

* *Births* in thoſe Families who bury in the *Potter's Field.*

† *Births* among the black People.

Philadelphia Prices-Current,

JANUARY, 31, 1790.

Beef.
- Ashes, pot, p. ton, 35l.
- Pen. and Jer. p. bbl. 45s.
- Connecticut, do. 47/6.
- Boston, (wmships) 55s.

Brandy, French, p. gal. 7s.
Bread, ship, per cwt. 19/6.

Beer
- American, in bottles, per dozen 8/4
- Ditto, per bbl. 30s.

Boards
- Oak, p. m. feet, 67/6-85s.
- Merchant. pine 95s.
- Sap, 60s.
- Cedar, 55-65s.

Chocolate, per lb. 1/2d.
Coffee, per. lb. 14-15d.

Flour.
- Superfine, p. bl. 43-45s.
- Common, 40-42/6.
- Bur. mid. best, 37/6.
- Middlings, 32/6.
- Ship stuff, p. cwt. 15-16s.

Flax, per lb. 7½-9d.
Flaxseed, per bush. 5-5/9.
Ginseng, per lb. 2-2/4.
Gin, Holland, per gal. 4/9

Grain
- Wheat, p. bush. 8/4-8/6.
- Rye, 5s.
- Oats, 2/6.
- Indian corn, 3/8.
- Barley, 4/9.
- best scelled, 20s.
- Buckwheat, 2s.

Hams, per lb. 7d.
Hogs-lard, 8d.
Honey, 3½d-4d.
Hemp, per. ton, 50-56l.
Hops, per lb. 2/6.
Hogshead hoops, p. m. 5-6l.

Hides raw, per lb. 9½-10d.
Indigo, Fr. per lb. 7/6-12s.
Carolina, 4s-6/6.

Iron.
- Cast, per cwt. 22/6-30s.
- Bar, per ton, 29-30l.
- Pig, 9-10l.
- Sheet, 60-65l.
- Nail rods, 36l.

Meal, Indian, p. bbl. 19s.
Molasses, per gal. 2/9.
Nails, 10, 12 & 20d. 9d.

Oil.
- Sper. strained, p. g. 3/7.
- Whale com. 2s.
- Do. Northern, 2/9.
- Tanners p. bbl. 67/6.

Parchment, per doz. 30-37/6.
Porter, American, 10/6.

Pork.
- Burlington, 75s.
- Lower Co. 57/6-60s.
- Carolina, 55-60s.

Pease, 6-7/6
Rice, per cwt. 22/6-23s.

Rum.
- Jamaica per g. 6s.
- Windward, 4/9-5s.
- Antigua, 5/3.
- Barbadoes, 4/3.
- Country, 3-3/1.
- Taffia, 2/4.

Steel.
- German, p. cwt. 60-70s.
- English, blistered, 80s.
- Amer. p. ton, 40-60s.
- Crowley's, p. fag. 85s.

Snake root, p. lb. 1/6-2/8
Soap, common, 4d-6d.
Castile, 9d.
Starch, 4d-6d.

Sugar.
- Lump, per lb. 15d.
- Loaf, sing. refin. 18d.
- Ditto, double ditto. 20d.
- Havannah, white, 9d.
- Ditto, brown, 8d.
- Musco. p. cwt. 70-90s.

Salt.
- Allum, p. bush. 2s.
- Liverpool, 2/4
- Cadiz, 2/3
- Lisbon, 2/4

Tar
- N. Jer. 24 g. 10s.
- Carolina, 32 g. 15s.
- Turpentine, 20s.

Tobacco, 100lb.
- J. R. new, best, 35-42/6
- Inferior, 28-35s.
- Old, 45-50s.
- Rappahan. 25-27s.
- Coloured Maryl. 35-40s.
- Dark, 25-28s.
- Long leaf, 25-28s.
- Eastern Shore, 18-25s.
- Carolina, new, 25-27s.
- Old, 35s.

Tea.
- Hyson, p. lb. 7/6-8/6.
- Souchong, 4/1-6/8.
- Congo, 3/9-5/6
- Bohea, 2/6-2/7.

Wine.
- Mad. p. p. 40-75l.
- Lisbon, 30l.
- Teneriffe, p. g. 3/9.
- Fayal, p. g. 3/4.
- Port, per pipe, 30-35l.
- Ditto, per gal. 5/10
- Dit. per doz. bot. 28-30s.
- Claret, 30-60s.
- Sherry, p. gal. 7/6.
- Malaga, 5s.

Wax, bees, per lb. 1/10½-2s.

Current Prices of PUBLIC SECURITIES.

Funded debt.	6 per Cents	17/4. per £.	or 86⅛ per Cent.
	3 per Cents	9s.	or 45 do.
	Defered 6 per Cents	9/4.	46⅛ do.
Unfunded do.	Final Settl. and other Certificates	15/9.——16s.	78¾ do.
	Indents	9s.	45 do.
	State debts	11s.——11/6.	57½ do.

COURSE of EXCHANGE.

Bills of Exchange,	London, 90 days, 69—70.	Amsterdam,	60 days, per guilder, 3s.
Ditto,	60 days, 70—72½.		30 days, 3/1
Ditto,	30 days, 74.	France,	60 days, per 5 livres, 6/8
			30 days, 6/8

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of DECEMBER, 1790.

Days.	Baromet. Eng. foot. In.	Thermometer of Farenh. D.	Reaum. D.	Anemometer Prevail Wind	rain	thunder	snow	WEATHER.
1	30 6 6	24 4	3 4	NW				Fair
	30 5 7	35 6	1 6	NW				Idem
2	30 3 6	30 7	0 6	NW				Cloudy
	30 0 6	32 9	0 4	NE				Rain
3	29 4 9	35 8	1 7	WSW				Cloudy
	29 5 15	42 6	4 7	WNW				Idem
4	29 6 14	36 0	1 8	WSW				Idem
	29 6 4	43 0	4 9	W				Idem
5	29 8 0	30 3	0 7	W				Idem
	29 8 0	38 1	2 7	W				Fair
6	30 1 14	21 1	4 8	W				Idem
	30 0 8	34 2	1 0	W				Idem
7	30 0 14	35 0	1 4	NNW				Cloudy
	30 3 0	34 9	1 3	N				Fair
8	30 8 5	11 0	9 3	N				Idem
	30 9 0	24 3	3 4	N				Idem
9	30 10 6	10 0	9 8	N				Idem
	30 9 8	25 7	2 8	NNE				Cloudy, snow in night
10	30 6 12	26 9	2 2	NNE				Cloudy
	30 5 8	40 5	3 8	NNE				Idem, fog, and rain
11	30 3 11	36 7	2 1	NE				Rain
	30 2 12	41 7	4 3	NE				Cloudy, fog,
12	29 11 6	37 0	2 2	WNW				Rain
	29 11 10	43 2	5	NW				Fair
13	30 0 6	28 0	1 7	WSW				Cloudy
	29 10 11	41 7	4 3	WSW				Idem
14	30 0 2	30 0	0 9	NW				Fair
	30 0 8	38 7	3 0	NW				Idem
15	30 4 4	26 0	2 6	NW				Cloudy
	30 4 15	32 7	0 3	NW				Idem
16	30 0 11	21 0	4 9	NE				Snow
	29 11 4	30 2	0 8	NW				Cloudy
17	30 0 14	13 0	8 4	WNW				Fair
	29 11 12	25 7	2 8	WNW				Idem
18	30 0 7	8 7	10 4	W				Idem
	30 2 14	19 4	5 6	W				Cloudy
19	30 5 8	6 0	11 5	WSW				Idem
	30 4 9	24 3	3 4	SSW				Idem
20	30 1 15	22 2	4 4	SW				Idem
	30 1 13	38 1	2 7	SW				Idem
21	30 0 1	27 9	1 8	NE				Snow
	29 10	36 5	2	NE				Idem
22	30 4 6	14 0	8 0	NW				Fair
	30 5	25 2	3 0	NW				Idem
23	30 1 14	16 0	7 1	SW				Idem
	30 0 13	37 6	2 5	WSW				Idem
24	30 3 13	27 0	2 2	ENE				Cloudy
	30 4 10	31 1	0 4	NE				Idem
25	30 2 14	17 5	6 4	NE				Close fog
	30 1 8	28 8	1 4	NE				Snow
26	29 11 11	24 4	3 4	NW				Fair
	29 11 3	29 7	1 0	NW				Cloudy
27	30 1 8	12 0	8 9	WSW				Idem,
	30 2 4	24 6	3 3	WSW				Fair,
28	30 2 14	11 2	9 2	W				Cloudy
	30 2 10	24 1	3 5	W				Fair
29	29 9 15	19 9	5 4	W				Close fog
	29 11 0	39 2	3 2	W				Cloudy
30	30 3 4	12 4	8 7	NW				Fair
	30 3 11	21 0	4 9	N				Idem
31	30 3 3	10 5	9 5	NNW				Cloudy, snow in night
	30 2 5	21 6	4 6	NNE				Cloudy

RESULT.												
	30th gr. ele.	4	12th gr. de. of heat	42 2 5								
	5th least el.	30 10 6	30th least de. of heat	6 0 11 5	0	NW. W	4		6	Cloudy.		
	Variation	29 4 9	Variation									
	Mean eleva.	1 5 1	Temperature	37 2 16 5								
		30 1 12		27 2 2 1	0		1				1	

Pleas.t Mills March 18. 1791 —

John Richard

Univ. Asyl.

Fig. 1.

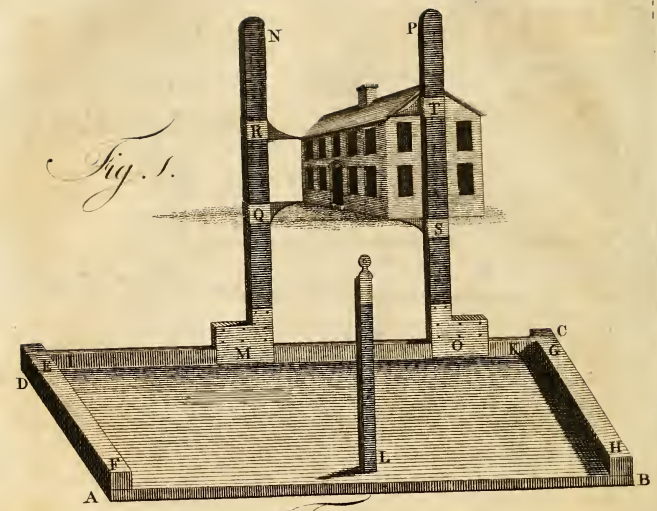
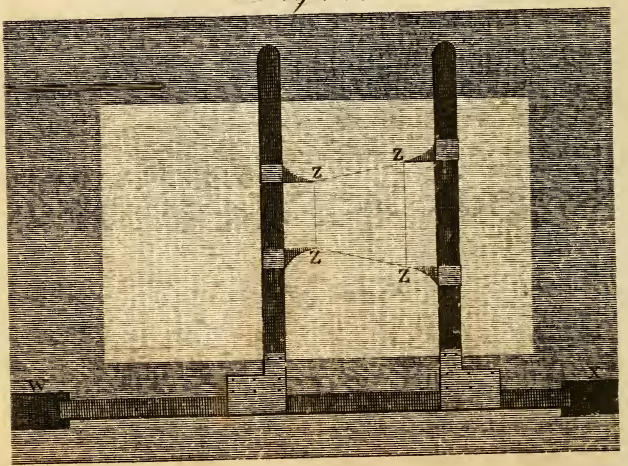


Fig. 2.



Simple Machine for Perspective-drawing.

THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR FEBRUARY, 1791.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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In this NUMBER are given an ENGRAVING of a newly-invented MACHINE for DRAWING in PERSPECTIVE, and a piece of MUSICK.

PHILADELPHIA:

PRINTED, FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, No. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

LAURA will perceive, upon turning to our *Parnaſſiad*, that we have received her polite letter, together with the packet which accompanied it. Our early inſertion of ſome of the poems will diſcover our inclination to treat the favours of our fair correſpondent with due attention and reſpect. The remaining poems, and alſo the proſe articles, ſhall be inſerted as ſpeedily as poſſible, Any other productions of *Sylvia's* elegant muſe, which may be in the poſſeſſion of *Laura*, would be highly acceptable.

The eſſay entitled *Thoughts on Indifference to Religion, and the Influence of Diſſipation*, inſerted in the Aſylum for the preſent month, does honour to the head as well as the heart of the *fair author*. May we indulge a hope, that this lady will favour us with a continuation of her correſpondence?

The eſſay ſigned *Philokoinoneas* ſhall be publiſhed next month, if poſſible; if not, it ſhall certainly appear in the Aſylum for April.

Sincerity, a poem, addreſſed to *Clara*; an *Ode* on the *progreſs* of *enlightened Freedom*; and ſeveral other poetical favours are unavoidably poſtponed. Some of theſe ſhall have a place in our next month's *Parnaſſiad*.

Our correſpondent X. Z. muſt excuſe our declining to publiſh his dogmatic performance, at leaſt till we are ſupplied with an additional quantity of the letter I.

If *Corydon* does really "With falling tears" his "charmer's loſs deplore," we ſincerely pity him; but we cannot perceive what buſineſs the public have with an account of his private diſtreſs.

☞ We had it in contemplation, at the beginning of the preſent ſeſſion of congreſs, to publiſh a monthly abſtract of the proceedings of that body. Upon further conſideration, however, we were of opinion that this plan, to be uſeful, would far exceed the limits that could be allotted to it in a monthly miſcellany. For debates we would not be able to find room; and a mere ſketch of the minutes would be extremely dry and unintereſting; for by recording a heterogeneous mixture of unfiniſhed ſubjects, in the order of time in which they occurred, and interfered with each other, we ſhould be unable to give a connected view of the whole proceedings on any one ſubject.

We thought it might be preferable to wait till the cloſe of the ſeſſion; and then to give a connected hiſtorical account of the moſt important proceedings. This plan is now agreed upon. We ſhall therefore, as ſpeedily as poſſible, preſent our readers with a comprehenſive ſketch of the preſent ſeſſion, which will terminate in a few days; and ſhall continue to do the ſame, at the cloſe of every future ſeſſion of the federal legiſlature.

That we may be enabled to preſent our readers with ſome papers of a public nature, which are of importance, and ought therefore to be generally read, and carefully preſerved in a permanent work, we propoſe to give *ſixteen* additional pages, in lieu of an engraving, in the Aſylum for March.

THE
UNIVERSAL ASYLUM,
AND
Columbian Magazine,

FOR FEBRUARY, 1791.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

DESCRIPTION *of a* SIMPLE MACHINE *for* DRAWING *in* PERSPECTIVE, *lately invented by* MR. BENJ. DEARBORN, *an ingenious Schoolmaster of* Portsmouth, *in the State of* New-Hampshire; *accompanied with an engraving of the Machine.*

FIGURE 1st. A, B, C, D (in the annexed *Plate*) is a plain board, with the ledges E F and G H nailed on its upper side; at E and G are notches to receive the ruler I K set in firmly edge-wise, upon this ruler slide the pieces M N and O P perpendicular to the board, the ruler passing through the brasses M and O; Q, R, S, T are four pointers made of thin plate brass, and bent round the sliders, so that the pointing ends are upon a line with that side of the sliders which is next to the object to be drawn; the other end of the brass, coming round the slider, acts as a spring to keep the pointer in any place assigned. L is a perpendicular standard, on the top of which is a piece of plate brass with a small hole for viewing objects. The standard should be so contrived, as to be set at any required distance from the pointers, as the size of the draught will be in proportion to that distance. The board being firmly fixed level in a window, or elsewhere, place the eye at the hole and bring the pointers to bear for some part of the object, as for the four corners of the distant house, the instrument is then ready for drawing, which is thus done. Having a Drawing-board prepared as in Fig. 2d, with a sheet of paper fixed on it, take the ruler, with its sliders, out of Fig. 1st, and carefully place it flat-wise in the notches of Fig. 2d which are made in the pieces W and X, nailed on the drawing-board for that purpose: the pointers, by being on the under side of the sliders, will then lie flat on the paper, and direct in drawing the lines from point to point, as Z Z Z Z for the front of the house; this done, remove the ruler &c. to

their former position in the other board, take other points of the building, and transfer them to the paper, in the same manner as before; Thus, in a short time, the whole building may be drawn with great accuracy.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

HISTORY *of the* LIFE *and* CHARACTER *of* BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, L. L. D. *&c. &c. &c.*

(Continued from page 287, of Vol. V.)

THE disputes between the proprietaries and the people continued in full force, although a war was raging on the frontiers. Not even the sense of danger was sufficient to reconcile, for ever so short a time, their jarring interests. The assembly still insisted upon the justice of taxing the proprietary estates, but the governors constantly refused to give their assent to this measure, without which no bill could pass into a law. Enraged at the obstinacy, and what they conceived to be unjust proceedings of their opponents, the assembly at length determined to apply to the mother-country for relief. A petition was addressed to the King, in council, stating the inconveniencies under which the inhabitants laboured, from the attention of the proprietaries to their private interests, to the neglect of the general welfare of the community, and praying for redress. Franklin was appointed to present this address, as agent for the province of Pennsylvania, and departed from America, in June 1757. In conformity to the instructions which he had received from the legislature, he held a conference with the proprietaries, who then resided in England, and endeavoured to prevail upon them to give up the long contested point. Finding that they would hearken to no terms of accommodation, he laid his petition before the council. During this time Governor Denny assented to a law imposing a tax, in which no discrimination was made in favour of the estates of the Penn family. They, alarmed at this intelligence, and Franklin's exertions, used their utmost endeavours to prevent the royal sanction being given to this law, which they represented as highly iniquitous, designed to throw the burthen of supporting government upon them, and calculated to produce the most ruinous consequences to them and their posterity. The cause was amply discussed before the privy council. The Penns found here some strenuous advocates; nor were there wanting some who warmly espoused the side of the people. After some time spent in debate, a proposal was made, that Franklin should solemnly engage, that the assessment of the tax should be so made, as that the proprietary estates should pay no more than a due proportion. This he agreed to perform, the Penn family withdrew their opposition, and tranquility was thus once more restored to the province.

The mode in which this dispute was terminated is a striking proof of the high opinion entertained of Franklin's integrity and honour, even by those who considered him as inimical to their views. Nor was their confidence ill-founded. The assessment was made upon the strictest principles of equity; and the proprietary estates bore only a proportionable share of the expences of supporting government.

After the completion of this important business, Franklin remained at the court of Great-Britain, as agent for the province of Pennsylvania. The extensive knowledge which he possessed of the situation of the colonies, and the regard which he always manifested for their interests, occasioned his appointment to the same office by the colonies of Massachusetts, Maryland, and Georgia. His conduct, in this situation, was such as rendered him still more dear to his countrymen.

He had now an opportunity of indulging in the society of those friends, whom his merits had procured him while at a distance. The regard which they had entertained for him was rather increased by a personal acquaintance. The opposition which had been made to his discoveries in philosophy gradually ceased, and the rewards of literary merit were abundantly conferred upon him. The royal society of London, which had at first refused his performances admission into its transactions, now thought it an honour to rank him amongst its fellows. Other societies of Europe were equally ambitious of calling him a member. The university of St. Andrews, in Scotland, conferred upon him the degree of Doctor of Laws. Its example was followed by the Universities of Edinburgh and of Oxford. His correspondence was sought for by the most eminent philosophers of Europe. His letters to these abound with true science, delivered in the most simple unadorned manner.

The province of Canada was at this time in the possession of the French who had originally settled it. The trade with the Indians, for which its situation was very convenient, was exceedingly lucrative. The French traders here found a market for their commodities, and received in return large quantities of rich furs, which they disposed of at a high price in Europe. Whilst the possession of this country was highly advantageous to France, it was a grievous inconvenience to the inhabitants of the British colonies. The Indians, were almost generally desirous to cultivate the friendship of the French, by whom they were abundantly supplied with arms and ammunition. Whenever a war happened, the Indians were ready to fall upon the frontiers; and this they frequently did, even when Great-Britain and France were at peace. From these considerations, it appeared to be the interest of Great Britain to gain the possession of Canada. But the importance of such an acquisition was not well understood in England. Franklin about this time published his Canada pamphlet, in which he, in a very forcible manner, pointed out the advantages which would result from the conquest of this province.

An expedition against it was planned, and the command given to General Wolfe. His success is well known. At the treaty in 1762,

France ceded Canada to Great Britain, and by her ceſſion of Louſiana, at the ſame time, relinquiſhed all her poſſeſſions on the continent of America.

(To be continued.)

ACCOUNT *of an aſtoniſhing Aſſemblage of* BIRDS.

(From VAILLANT'S *Travels.)*

EVERY time I went to Schaapen Iſland, a kind of hollow ſound, which had ſomething dreadful in it, ſtruck my ear. I ſpake of this to the captain, [the commander at Saldanha] he anſwered, that if I had the ſmalleſt inclination that way, we would pay it a viſit; for that he himſelf ſhould like to ſee the Daniſh tomb. The next morning he gave orders accordingly, and we ſet off on this expedition.

In proportion as we approached this place, the noiſe excited our curioſity, the more ſo, as the ſea breaking with violence againſt the rocks, (which form a kind of rampart round the Iſland) ſeemed to re-echo the hollow buzzing, the cauſe of which we could not poſſibly divine. At length we arrived, I cannot ſay we landed, for the earth was covered with water, and the ſurf was ſo violent, that we were every moment covered with it.

With great difficulty and danger we climbed up the rocks, and gained the level plain. Never did a more extraordinary ſpectacle preſent itſelf to mortal eye! There aroſe, from the whole ſurface of the iſle, an impenetrable cloud, which formed, at about forty or fifty feet above our heads, an immenſe canopy, or rather ſky of birds, of all forms, and of all colours: cormorants, ſea-gulls, ſwallows, pelicans, all the feathered inhabitants of the air, who frequent this part of Africa, ſeemed aſſembled in this place; while all their various croakings mingled together, and modified according to their different kinds, formed ſuch muſic, that I was every moment obliged to ſtop my ears in order to diminiſh the din, and afford myſelf ſome relaxation.

The alarm was the more general among theſe innumerable legions of birds, as we had principally to do with females; it was preciſely the ſeaſon of their breeding, and they had their neſts, their eggs, and their young ones to defend. They attacked us like enraged harpies, and actually deafened us with their cries. Sometimes they fought on full wing, even ruſhing with violence againſt us; they ſeemed regardleſs of our ſhot, and nothing was capable of diſperſing them; nor could we make a ſtep without cruſhing either eggs or young ones under our feet. The earth was abſolutely covered with them.

The caverns and crevices of the rocks were inhabited by phocaſes and mors, a ſort of ſea-calves and ſea-lions. We killed, among others, one of the latter ſort, of an enormous ſize.

The moſt trifling ſhelter furniſhes a retreat for the manchots, who abound above all others. This bird, which is about two feet high,

does not carry his body like other birds, but walks perpendicularly on its feet, with a laughable air of gravity; and, what renders its appearance ſtill more ridiculous, the wings, entirely devoid of feathers, hang negligently by their ſides, aud are of no uſe, except in ſwimming. As we advanced towards the middle of the iſle, we encountered innumerable troops of them ſtalking along erect. Theſe creatures did not by any means derange themſelves on our appearance, but crowded particularly about the above mentioned monument, in ſuch a manner as ſeemed to forbid our approach; every avenue was obſtructed by them. Nature had added to the ſimple tomb of this poor Daniſh captain, what the imagination of the poet, and the chiſſel of the artiſt, could not poſſibly have reached. The beſt ſculptured ſcreech-owl on our moſt ſuberb mauſoleum has not ſo hideous, ſo melancholy an aſpect as the manchot: the mournful notes of this bird, mingled with the cries of the ſea calf, impreſs the mind with ſorrow, and form the heart to tenderneſs. For ſome time I fixed my eyes on this laſt aſylum of an unfortunate voyager, and offered the tribute of a ſigh to his manes.

ACCOUNT *of the* CAFFRES.

By Lieutenant Patterson, *the firſt* European *who ever viſited* Caffraria.

THE men amongſt the Caffres are from five feet ten inches to ſix feet high, and well proportioned, and in general evince great courage in attacking lions, or any beaſts of prey.

The colour of the Caffres is a jet black, their teeth white as ivory, and their eyes large. The cloathing of both ſexes is nearly the ſame, conſiſting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs, pieces of braſs in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms; they are alſo adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers faſtened on their heads, with many other fantaſtical ornaments. When they are about nine years of age they undergo the operation of being circumciſed.

They are extremely fond of dogs, which they exchange for cattle, and to ſuch a height do they carry this paſſion, that if one particularly pleaſes them, they will give two bullocks in exchange for it. Their whole exerciſe through the day is hunting, fiſhing, or dancing. They are expert in throwing their lances, and in time of war uſe ſhields made of the hides of oxen. The women are employed in the cultivation of their gardens and corn. They cultivate ſeveral vegetables, which are not indigenous to their country, ſuch as tobacco, water melons, a ſmall ſort of kidney-beans, and hemp, none of which I found growing, ſpontaneouſly. The women make their baſkets and the mats which they ſleep on. The men have great pride in their cattle; they cut their horns in ſuch a way as to be able to

turn them into any ſhape they pleaſe, and teach them to anſwer a whiſtle. Some of them uſe an inſtrument for this purpoſe, ſimilar to a Boſhman's pipe. When they wiſh their cattle to return home, they go a little way from the houſe and blow this ſmall inſtrument, which is made of ivory or bone, and ſo conſtructed as to be heard at a great diſtance, and in this manner bring all their cattle home without any difficulty. The ſoil of this country is a blackiſh loamy ground, and ſo extremely fertile, that vegetable ſubſtance, whether ſown or planted, grows here with great luxuriance.

We met with one tribe all of whom had loſt the firſt joint of their little finger; the reaſon they gave for cutting it off was, that it was a cure for a particular ſickneſs to which they were ſubject when young. I obſerved they eat, with a very good appetite, ſome old ſhoes which ſome of our Hottentots gave them.

PERFUMES *diſguſting to the* LADIES *of* MODERN ROME.

(By Mrs. Piozzi.)

THE Roman ladies cannot endure perfumes, and faint away even at an artificial roſe. I went but once among them, when Memmo the Venetian ambaſſador did me the honour to introduce me ſomewhere, but the converſation was ſoon over, not ſo my ſhame; when I perceived all the company ſhrink from me very oddly; and ſtop their noſes with rue, which a ſervant brought to their aſſiſtance on open ſalvers. I was by this time more like to faint away than they —from confuſion and diſtreſs; my kind protector informed me of the cauſe; ſaid I had ſome grains of marechale powder in my hair perhaps, and led me out of the aſſembly; to which no intreaties could prevail on me ever to return, or make further attempts to aſſociate with a delicacy ſo very ſuſceptible of offence.

Degraded ſituation of the POOR *at* NAPLES.

(By the ſame.)

A VERY veracious man informed me yeſterday morning, that his poor wife was half broken-hearted at hearing ſuch a counteſs's dog was run over; "for," ſaid he, "having ſuckled the pretty creature herſelf, ſhe loved it like one of her children." I bid him repeat the circumſtance, that no miſtake might be made: he did ſo; but ſeeing me look ſhocked, or aſhamed, or ſomething he did not like— "Why, madam," ſaid the fellow, "it is a common thing enough for ordinary men's wives, to ſuckle the lap-dogs of ladies of quality:" adding, that they were paid for their milk, and he ſaw no harm in gratifying one's ſuperiors.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES *of the* LIFE *and* CHARACTER *of the* Hon. JAMES BOWDOIN, *Esq.* L. L. D. F. R. S.

WHEN men of worth and eminence quit the theatre of life, and their virtues, their knowledge, and their patriotism are confessed by the publick, a general curiosity is excited, to know their origin, and trace their progress through life. We shall need no apology therefore to our readers, for here giving some sketches of the origin and life of the late governor Bowdoin.

The father and ancestors of this great man were natives of France, and had an handsome paternal estate in the neighbourhood of Rochelle. The family being protestant, they took refuge in Ireland, after the revocation of the edict of Nantz by Lewis 14th, in the year 1686, abandoning their native country and property on account of the protestant religion. They did not however approve of their situation in Ireland, but shortly after embarked for New England, and landed at Falmouth, now Portland, in Casco Bay, in the year 1688. Here they continued for some time, and from thence they moved to Boston. It is remarkable, that the then inhabitants of Casco Bay were all cut off by the Indians, and the settlements burnt, the day succeeding the removal of this family, in 1690.

A situation more pitiable and distressing than that of this family, can scarcely be conceived; especially when we are told, that the small sum of property collected in the confused moments of an unexpected persecution, was then exhausted. But these difficulties, insurmountable as they may appear, were nevertheless overcome by an animated industry. The father of the late Mr. Bowdoin came into this country, a young man, a stranger, without friends; and by diligence and exertions scarcely to be paralleled, from small beginnings, established himself in business. By a successful series of honorable commerce, he became an eminent merchant, and amassed a large fortune, with an unsullied reputation. In the latter part of his life, he was chosen into the council of the then province, of which he continued a member till the year before his death.

Governor Bowdoin was born in Boston, Aug. 7th, 1727, old stile. He gave early proofs of genius, and was distinguished, when a youth, for his steadiness, ingenuity and good behaviour, The same character marked him, through the progress of his education, from the school to the completion of his studies, at the university. He was a stranger to the sallies of youth, common to most young men, but which often degrade them. A close application to study, added to a lively and penetrating genius, distinguished him as the young man of merit when at college; while modesty, politeness and philanthropy excited expectations the most flattering as to his future eminence. He completed his education at Cambridge, to the honour of himself and that seminary of learning, in the year 1745.

His father dying in the year 1747, he came to the possession of an ample fortune, at the age of twenty one years; a situation too dazzling for most young men, and in which few at that age, would have

conducted with propriety. But he seemed early to have adopted a system of life, at once rational, pleasing, and beneficial. He married, at twenty two, a daughter of the Hon. John Erving, Esq; and entered upon a course of study and elegant relaxation, uniting the *utile dulci*, to which he undeviatingly adhered.

His fellow citizens did not long view with indifference his talents and qualifications. In the year 1753, the suffrages of the inhabitants of Boston made Mr. Bowdoin their representative, and introduced him to the general court. Here his learning, politeness and eloquence soon rendered him conspicuous. He continued in the house of representatives until the year 1756, when he was chosen into the council, where he was long known and respected. He there, in an able, masterly, uniform manner, advocated the cause of his country. In the disputes which laid the foundation of our late revolution, his writings and services were eminently useful. Governors Bernard and Hutchinson were constrained to confess, in their confidential letters to the British ministry, the weight of his opposition to their measures.* Governor Bernard, unwilling to be exposed to it, negatived him as a counseller in the year 1769. In 1770, the town of Boston again chose him a representative, and Mr. Hutchinson this year succeeded to the chair. He permitted Mr. Bowdoin to take a seat at the council board, as "his opposition," says the governor in his letters, "to our measures, will be less injurious in the council than in the house of representatives." In the year 1775, a year the most critical and important to America, Mr. Bowdoin was chosen president of the council of Massachusetts: And he continued in that office, the greater part of the time, until the adoption of the state constitution, in the year 1780. He was president of the convention who formed it: And some of its principal beauties were the result of his knowledge of government.

In the years 1785 and 1786, Mr. Bowdoin was chosen governor of the commonwealth. In this office his wisdom, his firmness and inflexible integrity shone conspicuously. He came to the chair of government at the most unfortunate period after the revolution. The people at large had been infatuated with the sudden influx of foreign luxuries after the peace, and had nearly exhausted the country of its specie, while the heavy taxes of the war yet burthened them. In this state of things, too many grew disaffected to the government, and were ready to destroy that constitution, which was the source of their freedom and happiness. It was truly a time to try men's integrity; especially with a chief magistrate, whose indispensible duty it became, to stand between the interests of the people and their passions, and in a manner to offer himself a voluntary sacrifice to the public good. Happy indeed was it for this country, that he had stability to resist the follies and vices of the times!—As much reputation was derived to the government of Massachusetts from subduing this insurrection, as from any event in her political history.

Governor Bowdoin was a learned and a studious man. He, consequently, felt a warm solicitude for the interests of literature, and

* See governor Bernard's letters, dated in 1768.

conſtantly exerted himſelf to promote them. The univerſity of Cambridge, his alma mater, always experienced his warm affection and generous ſupport. He ſubſcribed liberally for the reſtoration of its library in the year 1764, when it was conſumed by fire; and he preſented its apparatus with an elegant and valuable orrery. He was choſen a fellow of the corporation in the year 1779; but the cares and weight of government which he ſuſtained, induced him, in the the year 1785, to reſign the office, nor could he be afterwards perſuaded to reſume it. He felt, however, to his laſt hours, an affectionate regard for the intereſts of the college; and bequeathed it, by his will, four hundred pounds; the intereſt of which is to be aſſigned in premiums among the ſtudents, for the encouragement of uſeful and polite literature.

The American academy of arts and ſciences, founded during the diſtreſs of our country, and calculated to promote its reputation and intereſts, was formed under his auſpices and influence, and was an object of his warm and ſteady attention. He was choſen its firſt preſident, and continued in that office untill his death. He was eſteemed by its members as the pride and ornament of their inſtitution. To this body alſo governor Bowdoin bequeathed his large and elegant library, conſiſting of twelve hundred volumes, upon every branch of ſcience, and in almoſt every language, together with the ſum of one hundred pounds.

He was one of the founders of the Maſſachuſetts bank, and was its preſident for ſeveral years.

The purſuits of learning and policy did not engroſs his whole attention, nor prevent him from attending to the calls of humanity: mankind are indebted to him for his exertions in eſtabliſhing "the Humane Society of the commonwealth of Maſſachuſetts," which promiſes relief and additional ſecurity to the lives of unfortunate perſons, eſpecially ſeamen. Of this ſociety he was the able and benevolent preſident.

Perhaps governor Bowdoin's literary abilities and character were leſs known in his own country, than among foreigners: For he received many flattering diſtinctions from learned ſocieties in Europe. In the year 1767, he was choſen a member of the ſociety for the encouragement of arts, agriculture and commerce in Great Britain. In 1785 he was conſtituted doctor of laws by the univerſity of Edinburgh. He was a member alſo of the royal ſocieties of London and Dublin. But his merit was not neglected at home. The univerſities of Cambridge and Philadelphia, each preſented him with a diploma announcing him to be doctor of laws.

It would be injuſtice to this good man not to declare that he was deeply convinced of the truth and excellence of chriſtianity, and that it had a conſtant effect upon his private and public life. Elevated as was his ſituation, he ſcrupled not to profeſs it in the moſt public manner. He was an exemplary member of the church in Brattle-Street, Boſton, for more than thirty years, and to the poor of this church he bequeathed, by his laſt will, one hundred pounds.

He died at his manſion houſe in Boſton, on the 6th of November 1790, after a painful and diſtreſſing ſickneſs of three months. He re-

ſigned his life in the full belief of the religion which he had profeſſed; he was ſupported, in his laſt moments, by its animating hopes; and he ſubmitted to his fate with a philoſophical calmneſs and reſignation.

As a man we muſt love him: As a philoſopher, a ſtateſman, and a ſcholar, reſpect him;—and as a benevolent and chriſtian character, muſt fondly wiſh to emulate his virtues. And whilſt the faithful page of hiſtory will not fail hereafter to record his uſefulneſs, his cotemporaries moſt ſincerely lament his loſs.

An amiable and reſpectable widow, and two children, ſurvive him. The eldeſt a daughter, lady Elizabeth Temple, wife of Sir John Temple, conſul general in America from the court of Great Britain: The younger, a ſon, James Bowdoin, Eſq. member of the general aſſembly of Maſſachuſetts.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SIR,

THE encloſed eſſay, written by a lady in this city, contains many juſt and excellent thoughts, expreſſed in an agreeable and elegant ſtile. I beg you would give them a place in your uſeful Aſylum. *I have only to add my wiſhes, that they may attract the attention of the ladies of our country; and that their influence, every where, may be equal to their merit.*

B.

Philad. Feb. 14th. 1791.

THOUGHTS *on Indifference to* RELIGION *and the influence of* DISSIPATION. By *a* LADY.

IT would be a melancholy reflection to a benevolent mind, that as the clouds of ſuperſtition and bigotry are diſpelled, the influence of religion ſhould decline; and a zeal for her intereſts ſink into a cold indifference to her claim upon the heart, or a languid inattention to her precepts. Yet if we contraſt the preſent, with former ages, perhaps we might be juſtified in drawing ſuch a concluſion. —When the ſacred ſtreams of Chriſtianity were polluted by the torrent of barbariſm and ignorance, which overflowed the countries where its benign influence had extended, and its profeſſors had departed from the primitive purity of its practice, many circumſtances conſpired to draw the veil of error over the human mind. Infected by the contagion of vice, yet awfully conſcious of the purity and holineſs of that God whoſe name they profeſſed, they looked up to him rather as a Judge, whoſe wrath they would deprecate, than as a Father, in whoſe mercy and love they ſhould truſt. For many ſucceeding ages this was too prevailing a trait in the Chriſtian character: through the dark medium of a diſordered imagination, they beheld Omnipotence armed with a rod of vengeance; penances the moſt rigorous were performed for the expiation of crimes, and the body

tortured for the purification of the soul. Thus, in the mistaken operation of human passions, of passions most opposite to the attributes of the Deity, the fear of future punishment was appeased by voluntary inflictions, and no mild rays of heavenly hope and peace beamed on the sullen sacrifice. At this altar, persecution has kindled her flames; and in pursuing the objects of her mistaken zeal, has marked her ravages with desolation and blood. How different these, from the emotions which should swell the human heart, in the contemplation of the Supreme Benevolence, the bountiful author and continual supporter of our being!

Yet, however unlovely and unalluring the disguise which was thrown over the fair form of Christianity, its converts were numerous, its votaries were ardent: no sacrifice has been thought too great which its interests demanded; no consideration of worldly ease, allowed to supersede the necessity of the doctrine of the cross.

To trace superstition in its progress, or dispersion, is not necessary to the present subject. We know that at this period, when the gradual dawnings of truth have increased, till the clearness of its lustre so generally pervades the mind, a far different atonement is relied on; a far different purification thought necessary. To cleanse our hearts from sin;—to purge our souls from the contamination of sensual indulgences;—to cherish a spirit of divine love, and to extend its gentle influence to our fellow mortals, are now the requisitions of Christian faith. Religion, arrayed in the beauty of holiness, beams forth from the gloom which error had drawn around her, and calling us from a reliance on outward sacrifices, and pompous ceremonies, invites our affections, and lays claim to our hearts. Diffusing the pure spirit of the love-breathing gospel of Christ, she teaches us that "God is love;" * and the service of that divine master is no longer to be regarded as a toil and a sacrifice; no longer soured by austerities, or debased by superstition. "God is love!" How vast! how comprehensive this short expression of the Almighty Excellence! The pen of inspiration stiles him not only a God *of* justice; *of* mercy; *of* wisdom; *of* power; but *love* itself; as if this were the self-existent principle, the constituent essence of his nature, and all his glorious attributes flowed from the effulgence of this transcendent source.—When we consider that this love which created, continually supports, and pours forth the fulness of his bounty upon all nature, ought not the service of such a master to be our choice, our delight, our supreme and ineffable gratification!—

Whence then proceeds that indifference, and even aversion to religious pursuits, which too generally prevails among all ranks of people; and more particularly among those, from whose education, station in life, and opportunities for improvement, we should look for enlarged ideas, dignified sentiments, and enlightened minds?—Why in our city, where so many ministers of heaven are the messengers of peace, and the voice of instruction an echo to examples of piety and virtue,—why this defection from the precepts of Christianity?—why this deadness to the Spirit of divine love?—Business, po-

* I. John iv. 16.

litics, and pleasure have their votaries, and in their respective circles are pursued with avidity, though toil, disappointment, and satiety, mark their progress; but at the shrine of Religion, how few offer the ardent sacrifice of a devout and grateful heart! yet to how small a part in the scale of being do the interests of the former extend! at the confines of mortality their prospects terminate; and the last closing of the eye-lids on the light of time, shuts them out for ever!—But of the latter, who can tell the boundless hopes, who can conceive the height of blessedness, which may be looked for from the promises of an all-bounteous God!—Shall we then be content to grovel on earth, when Heaven is open to our hopes!—Shall we remain satisfied with the perishable enjoyments of mere animal life, when the life of angels may be our portion, through the countless ages of eternity!——

Among the female part of the community, whose young and susceptible hearts are formed for a sensibility of piety and devotional affections, we must particularly regret that lightness and vanity, which, where they prevail, supersede all serious reflection, and absorb in the engagements of dress, company, and conquest, the views of an immortal spirit. To such, a mite is offered from a benevolent heart, in addition to the treasures of instruction they have an opportunity of receiving: Will ye pause, my sisters,—and while pleasure allures, while vanity elates, and flattery sooths the heart, listen a moment to an advocate for eternity, who would plead with you for that part of yourselves, which shall survive when the spoiler hath laid low the pride of mortality, and corruption hath paled the blushing cheek, and defaced the harmonious form of beauty? Not in heaviness of heart, not in the gloom of austerity;—not in a frigid insensibility to human concerns, does religion require you to tread the path of duty. Her native aspect breathes benignity and peace; she smiles on the fullness of social enjoyment; and brightens, by her chearing influence, the innocent gratifications and amusements of life. But amusement, as it is too often pursued, is dissipation;—dissipation of time, health, and fortune; of all that is most precious in private and domestic life;—dissipation of those best affections of the soul, those intellectual enjoyments, which refine and dignify our natures. Perhaps from the bosom of retirement, and abstracted from the engagements of the gay world, its scenes appear in too strong colours;—but let the unbiassed voice of reason decide, whether from them there ever sprung a delight which ennobled the affections, refined the desires, or elevated the soul to the highest aim of its nature, an inward communion with our Maker, our God;—and the anticipation of immortal joys in his presence—"God is love!"—but he is likewise a God of purity and holiness; and the heart that would be accepted by him must cherish the influence of his divine spirit, and endeavour to assimilate itself, as far as our imperfect natures will admit, to this source of light and love. But how is this to be done?—by fluttering in the glare of vanity and pride?—by devoting that time which is allowed for improvement in intellectual acquirements, to frivolous consultations on dress and ornament; or squandering, in idle and expensive gratifications that fortune which the bounty of

Providence has bestowed, by a continual round of empty amusements, trifling conversations, or other vain occupations which sometimes fill up the hours of a fashionable fine lady? Surely, surely no—Ye whose tastes are thus vitiated, appeal to your own hearts, and say, do ye even retain a relish for the more sublime indulgence of human happiness, or aspirings for the purity of that bliss which is to constitute our heaven hereafter?—where is the flow of elegant and virtuous sentiment, which gives to society its polish, and to friendship its charms?—where is the glow of tender humanity, which expands to every son and daughter of distress;—which succours the necessitous, sooths the afflicted, and embraces in the wide circle of benevolence and compassion, those whom it has not the power to relieve?—where is that energy of pure affection and unlimited friendship, which unite in the most endearing of human connexions, which qualify you to fulfil the duties of wife and friend to the chosen of your hearts, and to unite in fond solicitude for the welfare of those tender beings whom heaven may commit to your charge?—Ah! my sisters;—that ye could be made sensible of the melting tenderness and joy which swells the fond bosom of the mother, on beholding the fair principles of excellence her care has implanted, expand and flourish in the young minds of her offspring! But where is the ability of this arduous task if yourselves are unenlightened, and the prime of your days wasted in pursuits unworthy a rational creature?—Alas! the capacity for an enjoyment of these pure delights, exists not in a heart insensible to religion, enslaved by the tyranny of fashion, and devoted to her fascinating pursuits.——

This is considering the cultivation of religious impressions, and the exertion of our noblest faculties, only as heightening the happiness of life; but in the hour of affliction, and what mortal is exempt from many such?—where is the source of comfort and hope, which can sustain the soul under the pressure of adversity?—The loss of friends, the decay of health, the harrassings of care, ask for a solace, which never will be found in the gay bustle of the world, or in the vapid repetition of its pleasures. But in a season of distress, how shall that heart be lifted up in prayer to the supporter of the wretched, which never swelled with gratitude and thankfulness for his benefits? When the prospects of life are darkened, how shall it look beyond them with hope to a scene of unmingled felicity, when it has never anticipated its delights! O for an awakening and persuasive voice, which might penetrate the inmost recesses of such hearts; and, if not totally insensible to the call of truth, arouse them from the dream of vanity, and chase the phantom from their bosoms, ere her fallacious influence has corrupted the springs of enjoyment! It should shew to them the purpose of our existence, in its extension through eternity;—it should assert the dignity of our nature, in its capacity for progressive excellence; and rescue from the contagion of example, those innocents who have not yet been drawn into the empty round of uselessness and folly!

Think not that an attention to religious obligations, and domestic duties, however unfashionable, would derogate from your rank in society, whatever it may be; or weaken your influence over the heart.

We have an example;—our city,—America,—the world has an example, in an illuſtrious character, of the great and good united; and the crown of glory which the *applauſe* of millions has awarded the HERO, is not ſuperior to the teſtimony of virtue, which the *love* of millions has beſtowed on the MAN. And while nations contemplate *this* character with admiration and reverence, let our countrywomen look up to the *firſt female* in our land, and behold in her an object for their emulation;—behold in her the dignity of virtue giving luſtre to the dignity of rank;—behold in her the ſuperior excellence of withdrawing from ſcenes of continual diſſipation, to the practice of religious duties, and the enjoyment of domeſtic bliſs.

ACCOUNT *of the* TURKISH BATHS.

(*By the Abbe Poiret.*)

LATELY I went to the baths, which are generally uſed among the Mahometans, both in Barbary and Turkey. At firſt I was made to enter a large veſtibule, where I quitted my clothes, and put on a double ſheet or blanket. In this dreſs I was conducted into the firſt hall, the heat of which, though moderate, had nearly ſuffocated me on my entrance. After remaining here ſome time to familiariſe me gradually to a warmer atmoſphere, I paſſed into the hall containing the baths. In this apartment my reſpiration was ſo impeded by the heat, that I wiſhed to leave it, but my lungs became inſenſibly accuſtomed to it. A copious ſweat poured down from all parts of my body, upon which I laid aſide my covering, and ſtretched myſelf out on the pavement. A Moor immediately approaching, threw ſome pailfulls of warm water over my body, and began to rub my ſkin, and to preſs it all over, in order to free it from the ſmalleſt particle of filth, making me afterwards aſſume various forced attitudes; and putting his knee on my breaſt, he made all the joints of my arms, legs and thighs crack: my reins and the vertebræ of the back were not ſpared. Had I not received previous information, I ſhould have been afraid that he would have diſlocated ſome of my limbs; but I admired the dexterity with which he bent and turned me in all directions, without expoſing me to the leaſt pain. Having left me to repoſe for ſome minutes, he returned a little after, bringing in his hand a coarſe cloth, with which he rubbed my whole body, exactly in the ſame manner as a groom does a horſe. It is aſtoniſhing how much the ſkin is freed from dirt by this operation. After this friction, and ſome new lotions with warm water, I reſumed my blanket, and returned gradually to the veſtibule, where the attendants took care to make me lie down, and to cover me well, until my ſtrong perſpiration had a little ſubſided.

During theſe operations one experiences a drowſy languor, and a ſtrong propenſity to ſleep—a kind of pleaſure which the Turks greatly delight in.

Of the PASSIONS, *as they display themselves in the* LOOK *and* GESTURE.

(*Concluded from page* 14.)

OF all the physiognomists I know, ancient or modern, the most eminent is John Gaspard Lavater, a clergyman of Zurich in Switzerland. He has published two or three magnificent volumes, and adorned them with many curious drawings. The work has noble strains of eloquence, and proves the author to be a man of great piety and goodness of heart; and many of his remarks, on the human and other figures, which he presents to his reader, are such as, I think, no person of observation can refuse to acquiesce in. But he is frequently whimsical, and in an affirmation too positive. His style, though beautiful in particular passages, is upon the whole diffuse, incoherent, and declamatory, to such a degree, that I believe it would be a difficult matter to digest his notions into a system. Some persons in his neighbourhood having been poisoned with the wine in the Eucharist, Lavater, supposing it had been done intentionally, preached a sermon with extraordinary vehemence; in which was this remarkable saying, which I mention, to show his confidence in his art, "I would not advise the perpetrator of this horrid deed to come in my way; for I shall certainly know him by his look, if ever I set my eyes upon him." Lavater is a man of genius and penetration, and a good deal of entertainment may be found in his book. But I am afraid it will not teach sagacity to those on whom nature has not bestowed that talent; nor form to habits of minute attention those who are habitually inattentive. And if it should encourage the unskilful to form rash judgments, there is reason to apprehend that it may do more harm than good. I shall not attempt to give a more particular account of it; for that would lead me too far from my present purpose.

Every body knows, that virtuous and innocent affections give an agreeable expression to the countenance, and criminal passions the contrary. Anger, discontent, despair, disfigure the features, distort the limbs, and give dissonance to the voice; while good humour, contentment, hope, joy, benevolence, have a pleasing effect in setting off the body to advantage. Emotions that are innocent, and at the same time in some degree painful, as pity and rational sorrow, discompose the features; but such discomposure, far from being unseemly, may be even captivating: beauty in tears has been found irresistable. When a passion becomes habitual, it is reasonable to suppose, that those muscles, of the brows, eyes, nostrils, cheeks, and mouth, over which it has influence, will, by acting continually in the same way, produce traces in the countenance, and fix upon it a visible character. This appears even in early life. A peevish or good-humoured, a cheerful or melancholy, boy, soon contracts what we call a peevish or good-humoured, a cheerful or melancholy, look. And if these dispositions continue to predominate in him, the lines produced by them in the several parts of the face, will in time become

as permanent as thoſe which are ſeen in the palm of the hand. What it may be, which connects certain emotions of the ſoul with certain configurations of the muſcles of the face, and certain attitudes of the head and limbs, I cannot determine; Des Cartes and others have inquired into this matter, but without ſucceſs; and, till the union of the ſoul and body be underſtood, this will probably remain a myſtery impenetrable to man.

In order to form ſome idea of the expreſſion of the countenance, we are deſired to ſuppoſe four parallel lines to be drawn acroſs it; one in the direction of the eye-brows, another in that of the eyes, a third in that of the lower part of the noſe, and a fourth in that of the mouth. It is not meant, that theſe muſt be right lines, or parallel in the geometrical ſenſe of the word; they are only ſuppoſed to have the ſame direction nearly, and to extend from the one ſide of the face to the other. While they remain parallel, and with little or no incurvation upwards or downwards, the countenance will indicate tranquility, that is, a compoſed ſtate of mind without emotion. If they ſeem depreſſed in the middle of the face, and elevated towards the ſides of it, the expreſſion will incline to cheerfulneſs; if raiſed in the middle and depreſſed towards the ſides, the effect will be contrary, and convey an idea of melancholy, or at leaſt of ſedateneſs. I do not ſay, that this holds invariably; I mean, that it is ſo for the moſt part: and every thing muſt be underſtood to be thus limited that relates to the preſent ſubject.

The raiſing of the line of the mouth at the two extremities is ſo well known to expreſs cheerfulneſs, that unſkilful painters, in order to give that meaning to their portraits, turn up the corners of the mouth, even when the reſt of the countenance betokens compoſure, as the features of thoſe who ſit for their picture commonly do. But this contrivance produces a ſmirk or affected grin, rather than a ſmile, becauſe the reſt of the face is not conformable to it. When the lines above-mentioned, eſpecially that of the eye-brows, (the moſt expreſſive of them all) are twiſted, or irregularly bent, it generally intimates diſcompoſure of mind, and, when much twiſted, violent diſcompoſure. There is expreſſion too, as every body knows, in the colour of certain features. A bright and ſparkling eye, and increaſed ruddineſs in the cheeks and lips, accompany keen emotions, as languid eyes and pale lips and cheeks betoken the contrary.

Admiration, as formerly obſerved, elevates the eye-brows, opens the mouth and eyes, fixes the attention upon the admired object, raiſes the hands, and ſpreads the fingers: aſtoniſhment opens the mouth and eyes ſtill wider, and gives a greater and more irregular elevation to the brows. If to aſtoniſhment fear be added, both rows of the teeth will appear, and thoſe ends of the eye-brows which are next the noſe will be much wrinkled, and drawn downward ſo as to hide the upper eye-lid. Eſteem compoſes the countenance, elevates the pupils of the eyes, draws the eye-brows down toward the noſe, contracts the noſtrils, opens the mouth a little, and gently depreſſes the corners of it. Veneration ſometimes aſſumes the ſame appearances a little heightened, elevating the pupil of the eye till it almoſt diſappear un-

der the eyelid; and sometimes shuts the mouth and eyes, inclining the face towards the ground, and spreading the hand upon the breast.

Contempt elevates and draws back the head, wrinkles and pulls down the brows, distends and raises the nostrils, shuts the mouth and depresses the corners of it, makes the under lip more prominent than the upper, turns away the face from the despised object, and directs the eyes towards it obliquely. Grief raises the brows towards the middle of the forehead, depressing them at the temples, gives a similar direction to the line of the mouth, half shuts the eyes hiding the pupils under the upper eye-lids, and frequently draws forth tears. Joy smooths the forehead, opens and illuminates the eyes, raises the brows and the corners of the mouth, gently distends the nostrils, and heightens the complexion. Laughter raises the corners of the mouth still higher, giving the same direction to the line of the brows, discovers both rows of the teeth, moistens and almost shuts the eyes, diffuses wrinkles over the several parts of the cheeks and forehead, and affects the voice in a very sensible and peculiar manner.

I need not enter further into the detail of this subject; what has been said may serve as a specimen, and that is perhaps sufficient. Descriptions of physiognomy it is not easy to make intelligible without drawings; and if one had a good assortment of these, little description would be necessary. Le Brun's Passions are in every print-shop, and must be allowed to have considerable merit; though the features expressive of the more violent emotions are perhaps exaggerated into what the Italians call *caricatura*: Chodowiecki has made some valuable additions to Le Brun, which may be found in Lavater. —I conclude with observing, that several energies of the *understanding*, as belief, doubt, perplexity, denial, &c. do also display themselves visibly in the look and gesture; as may be seen in that admirable Cartoon of Raffaelle, which represents Paul preaching at Athens.

Description *of a* Lapland family; *and of the* Laplanders *in general.*

(From Consett's *Tour through* Swedish Lapland, &c.)

This consisted of an old man, his wife, a young man and his wife, with a very young child, probably about two months old. The infant was most curiously trussed up in a cradle, or machine, almost resembling a fiddle-case, made of the thick bark of a tree, so formed that it exactly contained the babe, who was fixed in it with a kind of brass chain, made so portable and light that the mother might easily carry it in one hand. This cradle, which is also sometimes made of a hollow piece of timber like a small boat, the Lapland women, when they travel, tie, with the child in it, to their back. The child is not covered with bed-clothes, but with a soft and fine moss, over which they lay the tender skin of a young rein-deer. When they

rock the child they faſten the cradle with a rope to the top of the hut, and toſſing it from one ſide to the other, lull the child aſleep. This Lapland family invited us to their tent, and offered us their common and only fare, which conſiſts of deer's milk, and cheeſe made of the ſame milk; occaſionally they eat deer's fleſh, but have no kind of bread. We preſented them in return for their civilities with ſome wine, which they ſeemed to reliſh very much, but gave us to underſtand that brandy would have been more acceptable.

The Laplanders are a ſtrong-featured people, low in ſtature, but ſo conſtitutionally hard as to bear the ſeverity of the moſt inclement ſeaſon. Theſe people are generally born in woods, and are frequently upon the ſnow, and wanderers from their birth to their life's end. Their huts are formed of pieces of timber, or rafters joined together, and covered with turf, or the branches or bark of pine-trees, ſo that architecture here may be ſaid to appear in its firſt rudiments. Sometimes coarſe cloth makes a part of the covering of their tents. In ſome places, we were told, that their houſes were built upon the trunks of trees raiſed above the ſurface of the earth, or upon a ſtone foundation, to prevent, in thoſe deſolate regions, their being overwhelmed in the enormous drifts of ſnow, or devoured by wild beaſts.

Their low-priced brandies are made from rye and ants, a ſpecies of inſect very plentiful in this country. Upon enquiry I find, that "ants ſupply a reſin, an oil, and an acid, which have been deemed of conſiderable ſervice in the art of phyſic." The ant uſed upon theſe occaſions is a remarkably large black inſect, commonly found in ſmall round hills at the bottom of the fir tree. It is leſs to be wondered that they ſhould uſe theſe inſects in their diſtilleries, than that they ſhould eat them and conſider them as highly palatable and pleaſant. As I was walking with a young gentleman in a wood near Gottenburg, I obſerved him ſit down upon one of theſe living hills, which, from the nature of its inhabitants, I ſhould rather have avoided, and begin with ſome degree of keenneſs to devour theſe inſects, firſt nipping off their heads and wings. The flavour he declared was of the fineſt acid, rather reſembling that of a lemon.

DIRECTIONS *for the* RAISING *and* MANAGEMENT *of* HOPS.

A RICH, deep, mellow, dry ſoil, rather inclining to ſand than clay, is beſt adapted to the cultivation of hops. A black garden mould is excellent.

The ground ſhould be ploughed very deep, or dug with a ſpade, reduced to fine mould by repeated ploughing and harrowing, and laid even.

When the ground is in proper readineſs for planting, let a line be ſtretched on a ſtraight ſide of a field with knots or rags in it, as far aſunder as you deſign your hills ſhall be; and ſtick in the ground a ſharp pointed ſtick at every knot, as marks for the places where the

hills are to be made. Remove the line to such a distance as to make the hills equi-distant both ways; and so on, through the whole ground.

The distance of the hills should be regulated by the strength of the soil. But in every case they should be far enough asunder to admit the hoe-plough at all times. If the soil be dry and shallow, six or seven feet will be a convenient distance: But if it be rich, moist, and apt to bear large hops, it may be right to allow eight or nine feet.

The time to plant hops is when they begin to shoot in the spring. The sets are cuttings from the roots, or branches which grow from the main root. They should be from five to seven inches long, with three or more joints or buds on each, all the old and hollow part being cut off. Make holes twelve or sixteen inches wide, and of a depth proportioned to the nature of the ground. If shallow, with hard clay or gravel under, dig not into it, lest you make a basin to retain water; but raise a small hill of good mould. If there is a good depth of rich mellow mould, dig the hole a foot and a half, or two feet deep; the hops will thrive the better.

When all things are ready for planting, fill up the holes with the mould before thrown out, if it be good: but if the same earth be not rich enough, make use of fine fresh mould, or of a compost provided for the purpose, a peck in each hill, but no dung on any account.

Then with a setting-stick make five or six holes, one in the middle perpendicular, and the rest round it sloping, and meeting at the top near the center. Put in the sets so that they may stand even with the surface, press the mould close to them, and cover them with fine mould two or three inches thick. A stick should be placed on each side of the hill to secure it.

The ground being thus planted, all that is to be done in the following summer is, to keep the hills and alleys clear of weeds by frequent hoeings, to dig the ground in May, and carry off the stones raised by digging; to raise a small hill about the plants, and throw some mould on the roots, and in May or June to twist all the vines and branches together in a loose knot, and lay them thus twisted on the top of the hill.

Early in the following spring, when the weather is fine, open the hills, and cut off the shoots of the first year, within an inch of the stock, together with the younger suckers that have sprung from the sets, and cover the stock with fine earth.

In the third and following years, when you dig your hop ground, let the earth be taken away with a spade or hoe, round about the hills, very near them, that you may more conveniently come at the stock to cut it. Then in fair weather, if your hops be weak, begin to dress them: But if strong, do it later; for dressing late restrains their too early springing, which hurts the hop.

After dressing in the second year, the next thing is to pole them. Poles ten or twelve feet long will do then: But in the third year, when they come to their full bearing state, they will require poles of full size: This, if the ground be rich, and the hop vigorous, will be from sixteen to twenty feet; or there will be danger of losing great part of the crop.

The hop will ſoon run itſelf out of heart, if it be over-poled. Neither can a good crop be expected from over-poled ground; becauſe the branches which bear the hops grow very little, till the buds have over reached the poles, which they cannot do when the pole is long. Two ſmall poles are ſufficient for a hill in a young ground.

In forward years hops are ripe at the beginning of September. When they begin to change colour, or are eaſily pulled to pieces; when they emit a fragrant ſmell, and when their ſeeds begin to look brown and grow hard, you may conclude that they are ripe. Then pick them with all expedition; for a ſtorm of wind will do them great miſchief at this time.

When the poles are drawn up in order to be picked, the vines around ſhould be cut aſunder, at the height of three or four feet from the ground: For cutting them lower, eſpecially while the hops are green, would occaſion ſo great a flow of ſap, as would weaken the root.

The beſt way of drying hops is on kilns. Four pounds of undried hops, will make one pound after they are dried.

Before hops are bagged, they ſhould be laid in a heap, that they may ſweat and grow tough: And if they are covered for a while with blankets, they will be the better. The harder they are trodden in the bag the better they will keep. The bags are made of coarſe linen cloth. They are commonly about eleven feet long, and near two yards and a half in circumference, and contain about 250 weight of hops. The ſmall bags, called pockets, contain about half as much.

The manner of bagging is thus. Make a round or ſquare hole, about 26 or 30 inches over, in the floor of the chamber where the hops are laid in heaps after ſweating. Tie, with a piece of packthread, a handful of hops in each lower corner of the bag, to ſerve as handles for the more eaſy lifting or removing the bag; and faſten the mouth of the bag to a frame, or hoop, ſomewhat larger than the hole, that the hoop may reſt on its edges. The upper part thus fixed, the reſt of the bag hangs down through the hole, but not ſo far as to touch the lower floor. Then throw into it a buſhel or two of hops, and let a man go into the bag, and tread the hops down till they lie cloſe; then throw in more and tread; and ſo on till the bag is full. Looſe it from the hoop, and ſew up the mouth as cloſe as poſſible, tying hops in the upper, as was done in the lower corners. The harder the hops are preſſed, and the cloſer and thicker the bag is, the longer and the better the hops will keep.

A ſmall manuring of hop-ground every ſecond year is ſufficient. Dung was formerly more in uſe than at preſent, experience having ſhewn that lime, ſea-ſand, marle, aſhes, &c. anſwer the end better, and laſt longer. But hog-dung prevents mildew from taking hops.

Each pole, according to Dr. Hales, has three vines, which makes ſix vines to a hill. All the ſprouts above this number, ſhould be broken off in the ſpring.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

HISTORY *of the* AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

(Continued from page 27.)

WE have already seen the British government extinct in the Southern colonies*, previous to the close of the year 1775, and the governors Dunmore, Martin, and Campbell forced to take refuge on board British armed vessels. We now return to take a view of the operations in those colonies, in 1776.

After the burning of Norfolk, as has already been mentioned, lord Dunmore was unable to effect any thing further in Virginia. He remained, for some months, with his fleet, on the coast, and in the rivers; but, deprived of supplies, by the vigilance of the inhabitants, and sent up in small filthy vessels, his unhappy adherents were exposed to uncommon distress. Sickness raged amongst them; and a great number, especially of the Negroes, died. In the course of the summer, he burnt the least valuable of his vessels, and sent the others to Florida, Bermuda, and the West-Indies. Thus ended his scheme of subduing Virginia, by the assistance of those run-away negroes for whom he had opened an asylum.

In North Carolina, governor Martin exerted himself, with more success, to raise a military force. A numerous and desperate banditti, named Regulators, who had formerly attempted to subvert the laws, in the remote settlements of the colony, but who had been reduced to obedience, by forcible means, were now among the chief supporters of the royal cause. Some Highland emigrants, who had not been long in the country, and who were still under the influence of that attachment to royalty which they had early imbibed, also took part with Martin, who sent commissions for raising regiments amongst them, and appointed a Mr. Mc. Donald to act as their general.

Feb. Upon receiving intelligence of their assembling, general Moore, with his regiment of Provincial troops, some militia, and a few pieces of cannon, marched to Rock-fish Bridge, within a few miles of the enemy, where he found it necessary, because of the inferiority of his force, to throw up some intrenchments, and to avoid an engagement, till reinforcements should arrive. In a few days Mc. Donald approached with his army; and sent a letter to Moore, including a proclamation, issued by governor Martin, and recommending to him and his party, to join the king's standard; adding, that if they did not, they must expect to be treated as enemies. General Moore, in reply, enclosed the test proposed by Congress, assuring Mc. Donald and his party, that if they laid down their arms, they should be pardoned and received as friends: but, if not, that they must expect consequences similar to those with which they had threatened the Provincials. Mc. Donald had no cannon, and was therefore deterred from commencing an attack, though at the head of a supe-

* See vol. v. page 234.

rior force. Perceiving that the American army increased daily, he thought proper to quit his post, and endeavour to form a junction with governor Martin, at Wilmington. His march was so rapid as to baffle every effort of general Moore to intercept him. But colonels Lillington and Caswell, in consequence of directions transmitted to them by general Moore, took possession of Moore's-creek-bridge, which lay in the enemy's way, with about 1000 militia. Here they threw up a small breast-work, and destroyed part of the bridge, taking up the planks, and greasing the beams to render them slippery to tread on. Mc. Donald, with about 2000 men, arrived at *Feb.* 27 the bridge next morning. Having, with some difficulty, passed over, the royalists immediately attacked the provincials with great fury; but a captain Mc. Cleod, who led the attack, fell, together with some other officers, and a great number of men, at the beginning of the engagement. The retreat was now as precipitate as the onset had been impetuous. General Mc. Donald was taken prisoner, and the whole of his party entirely dispersed. Among the arms which, on this occasion, fell into the hands of the Americans, were 150 swords and dirks, belonging to the Highlanders.

So effectually did this defeat crush the spirit of insurrection in North Carolina, that a proclamation, issued shortly after by general Clinton, from on board the Pallas transport, in Cape-Fear river, did not bring a single man to the royal standard. To general Clinton and Sir Peter Parker was committed the management of the ministerial expedition against the Southern colonies. Clinton, who sailed from Boston in January, had first touched at New-York, and afterwards visited Lord Dunmore, on the coast of Virginia; but finding that nothing could be effected at either place, he proceeded to Cape-Fear river. Here he was joined by his colleague, Sir Peter *May.* 3. Parker, with a considerable squadron, directly from Europe. They now resolved to attempt the reduction of Charleston. They were, at this time, entirely ignorant of Sir William Howe's situation, the only information they had of his evacuating Boston, was from the American newspapers. A vessel, which general Howe dispatched from Halifax, with orders for their proceeding to the northward, met with such delays in her passage, that she did not arrive at Cape-Fear, till after their departure for Charleston.

The inhabitants of South-Carolina had, for a considerable time, expected a visit from the enemy; and had therefore used every exertion to put the province in a state of defence. The strengthening of Charleston had particularly engaged their attention. On Sullivan's Island, a convenient post, commanding the channel, and situated a few miles below the city, strong works were erected, particularly a fort constructed of palmetto trees, which are so spongy that bullets striking them make no extended fracture. On this fort were mounted 26 guns—26, 18, and 9 pounders.

It is worthy of remark, that when general Clinton sailed from Boston, general Lee was detached from the army before that place, to secure New-York from the attempt which Clinton was expected to make against that city. Having succeeded in that object, general Clinton could not help being surprized, on his arrival in Virginia to

find Lee in the same state of preparation to receive him there. When he departed for Cape-Fear, Lee again traversed the country with the utmost expedition to secure North Carolina. And, at length, upon the further progress of the British fleet and army to the Southward, Lee again proceeded, with equal celerity, to the defence of Charleston.

In the beginning of June, the British squadron anchored off Charleston bar. The difficulty of getting the larger vessels over the bar, together with a variety of other causes, occasioned a delay of some weeks, before they got as high up as Sullivan's Island.

This time was improved by the Americans in the best manner possible. The militia was collected from the adjacent country; and together with some regular regiments, which arrived from the neighbouring provinces, at this critical juncture, constituted, in a few days, an armed force of five or six thousand men, The citizens laboured incessantly in the trenches, and on the fortifications; and rendered the place sufficiently strong, to withstand a severe attack from the British, if they had attempted to land.

June 28. Sir Peter Parker attacked the fort on Sullivan's Island, with two fifty-gun ships, four frigates of 28 guns each, one of 20 and another of 22 guns, together with a sloop of war and a bomb of 8 guns each. Of these, three frigates took their station on that side of the fort which lies next to Charleston, while the others carried on the principal attack in a different quarter. The former were intended to keep up a fire on that part of the fort which was incomplete; to prevent all communication between the island and the main land, as well to prevent the arrival of succours to the garrison as to cut off their retreat. This part of the plan failed, through the unskilfulness of the pilot, who entangled the frigates in the shoals, where they stuck fast. Two of them were got off with some difficulty, in a damaged situation; but the third was burnt, next morning, to prevent her from falling into the hands of the Provincials. While she was on fire however she was boarded by a party of the Americans, who brought off her colours, and as many sails and stores as loaded three boats.

The other vessels commenced a most furious cannonade on the fort, which was incessantly continued for upwards of ten hours. The garrison, consisting of about 400 men, under the command of colonel Moultrie, made a brave defence. While the continued thunder, from the ships, seemed sufficient to shake the firmness of the most intrepid veterans, the return made by the garrison excited the astonishment, and commanded the applause, of the bravest and most experienced officers and seamen of Britain. In the midst of this dreadful roar of artillery, they stuck with the greatest constancy and firmness to their guns; fired deliberately, and generally took an effective aim. The ships suffered accordingly; they were almost torn to pieces, and the slaughter was dreadful. Upwards of 200 men were killed or wounded. Sir Peter Parker was among the wounded, and lord Campbell, the late governor of Virginia, received a wound, which eventually proved the cause of his death. Of the garrison not more than ten were killed and 22 wounded.

The fire from the veſſels was kept up, without intermiſſion, till ſeven o'clock in the evening, when it ſlackened conſiderably. Between nine and ten the firing on both ſides ceaſed; and ſhortly after the ſhattered veſſels ſlipped their cables, and withdrew about two miles from the ſcene of action. During this obſtinate conflict, the firing of the Provincials at one time ceaſed, their ſtock of powder being expended. The Britiſh, ignorant of the true cauſe, imagined that their firing had effectually ſilenced the fort, and that the garriſon were about to ſurrender. But as ſoon as the fort was ſupplied with powder, from the main land, the fallacy of their opinion was diſcovered. The firing was reſumed by the garriſon with the ſame briſkneſs as before; nor did it abate till night put an end to the engagement.

The Britiſh expected much from the co-operation of general Clinton and lord Cornwallis, who had previouſly landed the troops, for that purpoſe, on Long Iſland, ſituated a little to the Eaſtward of Sullivan's iſland, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow fordable paſſage. But the danger that muſt inevitably have attended their croſſing over, induced them to relinquiſh the attempt; and remain ſilent ſpectators of a ſcene in which the ſeamen expected, with the utmoſt impatience, that they would have taken an active part. But this they expected in vain. Colonel Thomſon, with ſeven or eight hundred men, was ſtationed at the eaſt end of Sullivan's Iſland, to oppoſe their paſſage; and general Lee, who commanded the main body, was prepared to reinforce colonel Thomſon, with whatever number of men might be neceſſary, by means of a bridge of boats, extending from Sullivan's Iſland to the main land.

Great was the applauſe beſtowed on colonel Moultrie, for his intrepid conduct on this memorable occaſion. The fort he had ſo well defended was called by his name; and he, together with general Lee and colonel Thomſon, received the thanks of Congreſs.

Never were greater bravery and heroiſm diſplayed than in this engagement. An American ſergeant of grenadiers, named Jaſper, ſeeing the flag-ſtaff ſhot away, jumped upon the beach, from one of the embraſures, took up the flag, fixed it on a ſponge-ſtaff, and, amidſt a ſtorm of ſhot, mounted the merlon, and deliberately fixed it in its former place.

For this uncommon act of bravery he was publicly preſented with a ſword, by governor Rutledge, on the following day. Another ſergeant, named Mac Donald, being mortally wounded by a cannon-ball, exclaimed, in his laſt moments, "I die for a glorious cauſe, but I hope it will not expire with me."—A ſentiment not unworthy of the moſt illuſtrious hero, whether of ancient or of modern times.

Some have thought, and perhaps with good reaſon, that there was a capital miſtake on the part of the Britiſh commanders, in ſtopping to reduce the fort, when Charleſton was their object: and that they ought to have taken the advantage of the tide and a favourable wind, to paſs the fort, and at once attack the town, with all their force, ſince if they ſucceeded in their attempt againſt the latter, the former muſt have ſurrendered of courſe. Certain it is, that they might, in this way, have attacked Charleſton to much greater advantage, than they could have done after their force had been weakened by a ſevere con-

fliſt with the fort. For although, as has been objected to this opinion, the reduction of Charleſton was not a neceſſary conſequence of paſſing the fort; yet it was certainly a more probable conſequence of paſſing it with a loſs comparatively trifling, than of even reducing it at the expenſe of a number of their men and a great quantity of ammunition; and after their fleet had ſuſtained much injury in the engagement.

The Provincials, it is true, were in readineſs to receive them, had they attempted to land; and, no doubt, would have diſputed every inch of ground with them, with no leſs bravery than was diſplayed by colonel Moultrie and his men in the fort; ſtill however, it is queſtionable whether their oppoſition would have been effectual. General Lee, in a letter to the board of war, written a few days after the engagement, ſays, "Charleſton and its dependencies had certainly been loſt, if the enemy had acted with that vigour and expedition we had reaſon to expect; but a moſt unaccountable languor and inertneſs on their parts have ſaved us."

A few days after this unſucceſsful attack the troops reimbarked, and the whole armament ſailed for New-York, leaving the Southern colonies for a conſiderable time free from thoſe ravages of war, which were ſeverely experienced in almoſt every other part of the continent.

The Indians had early been tampered with by Britiſh agents. A plan was formed for landing an army in Florida, which ſhould proceed to the weſtern frontiers of the ſouthern colonies, to join the Indians and tories, and ravage the country; but, towards the cloſe of 1775, a veſſel was captured by the Americans, on board of which was found a Mr. Kirkland, confidential agent for ſettling the propoſed plan with the Britiſh commander-in-chief at Boſton. The letters found in his poſſeſſion were publiſhed; and thus this barbarous ſcheme was divulged; and in a great meaſure fruſtrated.

The Britiſh agents, however, continued to make preſents to the Indians; and although commiſſioners, on the part of the Americans, had been appointed to treat with them, yet they had not the means to furniſh them with ſuch preſents as they were conſtantly receiving from the enemy. The Indians were therefore decidedly in favour of Great Britain.

The Cherokees began their maſſacres on the frontiers, at the very time Sir Peter Parker attacked the fort on Sullivan's Iſland. The ſpeedy departure of his armament gave the Southern colonies an opportunity of checking the depredations of the barbarians; by making a joint attack on their ſettlements over the mountains.

Colonel Williamſon, with a few Provincial troops and a large body of militia, marched againſt the Cherokees, from South Carolina. About the ſame time, general Rutherford, with upwards of 1900 North-Carolinians, croſſed the Apalachian mountains, for the ſame purpoſe. The ſettlements of the Southern Indians were alſo invaded by colonel Jack, with a body of Georgia militia; and thoſe of the more northern Indians, by a party of Virginia militia, commanded by colonel Chriſtee.

Great hardſhips were ſuſtained in theſe expeditions; and they were alſo attended with uncommon danger. Col. Williamſon was two or

three times attacked by the Indians, with great fury; but he always repulsed them. The Americans on this occasion traversed the Indian country to a great extent, carrying devastation every where along with them.—Upwards of 500 Cherokees were obliged, for want of provisions, to take refuge in West Florida, where they were supported at the expense of the British government.

This was the most effectual expedition that had hitherto been undertaken against the Indians. In less than three months the object of the Americans was completed; and the nation of the Cherokees so far subdued, as to be rendered incapable of annoying the settlements for a considerable time after. The whole loss of the Americans did not exceed fifty men. *(To be continued.)*

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SIR,

THE following beautiful portrait of a great man is translated from a late French author; by giving it a place in the Universal Asylum, *you will oblige* *Yours, &c.*

S.

SKETCH *of the Celebrated* FENELON.

THIS prelate was a large man, thin, well made, with a large nose, eyes whose fire and spirit darted like a torrent; and features such as I never saw before, and which those who had once seen them could never forget. His countenance seemed to express every thing; yet the opposite qualities were well blended: it displayed gravity, complacency, seriousness, and gaiety; it equally suited the doctor, the bishop, and the nobleman. The prevailing character of his face and his person was refinement, genius, grace, decorum, and above all nobility. It required some effort to turn the eyes from him. All his portraits were speaking ones, without being able always to express the justness of the harmony which was so striking in the original, and the delicacy of each character which was united in the countenance. His manners answered to his appearance; with an ease which rendered others easy; with an air and taste which are only learnt in the best company, and from the greatest men, with whom he was constantly surrounded, in all his conversations: with these accomplishments he possessed a natural eloquence, mild and florid; an insinuating politeness, but noble and well regulated; an easy, clear, and agreeable elocution; a perspicuity and neatness, which rendered his discourse intelligible on the most abstracted and intricate subjects. He was a man too who did not aim at displaying more genius than those with whom he conversed; who put himself on a level with every one without shewing himself to be the foundation of the little constraint which they felt; and who seemed to fascinate his company so much, that they were not able to leave him, keep themselves from him, or avoid returning to him.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SIR,

SHOULD you apprehend the incloſed little production of a female pen, might have any tendency to promote the love of truth in the minds of your young readers, it is, through the channel of your entertaining miſcellany, at their ſervice. It was written a few years ago, (though never publiſhed) with ſome others of a like kind, for the amuſement of a young perſon, who is no more, whoſe native candour did not ſtand in need of ſuch a picture as the youth in the Allegory. A few, and but a few alterations have been made by its writer at this time. The tendency and moral of the *Fable* need no explanation: if they do, it cannot anſwer the end propoſed. I ſhall conclude this with a little anecdote, not altogether foreign to the ſpirit of my tale.

"It is authentically aſſerted, that the famous *John Wilkes*, Eſq., at an early period of life, ſtudied divinity under the excellent and truly pious *Dr. Doddridge*, who kept a private academy for a few ſelect young gentlemen, and with ſuch caution did he conduct himſelf in the eye of his *Mentor*, that he honoured his young *Eleve* with the epithet of "*The beauty of holineſs.*" What uſe Mr. Wilkes made of his *theological ſcience* in a mature ſeaſon, would be indelicate to point out, but is too well known, with horror, by the decent, to need further illuſtration. Like the pupil in the Allegory, he perverted the choiceſt gifts to the worſt of purpoſes; as the ſtrongeſt wine makes the ſharpeſt vinegar.

I am, Sir, your moſt obedient,

PULCHERIA.

Montgomery County, January 25, 1791.

AN ALLEGORY, *particularly compoſed for the uſe and attention of young people; to impreſs on their minds a nice regard to* Wiſdom *and* Truth.

"Ye groves and flowery vales in you we find
"The firſt unblemiſhed joys for man deſigned;
"Your charming ſcenes th' attentive mind ſupply
"With pleaſure in its nice variety."

ELIZA ROWE.

A FEW evenings paſt I was walking on the banks of the romantic *Schuylkill*, and recollecting that I was not very diſtant from the place of my friend Menander's reſidence, I called to paſs a ſocial hour with him: I found him, as uſual, ſurrounded with papers and books; one little piece ſeemed more immediately the object of his attention: I ſaw it was in his own hand-writing. How he came by it, whether an *original* or a *tranſlation* he did not inform me. But if the latter I apprehend it to be a pretty free one. The turn of thought and invention pleaſed me, and if thoſe who may condeſcend to peruſe it, read it with a ſhare of that partiality I have for the works of my friend, they will

derive half an hour of innocent amuſement from it, although I am ſenſible, that having an intimacy with the author of a piece (unleſs a rival in the pen) prediſpoſes us to be pleaſed with his performance.

WISDOM *and* TRUTH ; *An* ALLEGORY, *in two Parts.*

Part the Firſt.

IN thoſe primeval days, when gods and demi-gods, trode the bliſsful plains of favoured mankind, and the world was yet new from the hands of its great Creator, teeming with fruits and foliage, and fineſt herbage, and every native delicacy, which proved that it was bleſt with the propitious ſmiles of the parent of the univerſe.

When war and ſlaughter had not yet tinged the rivers with a purple current, nor polluted their banks with mangled limbs of deſpairing men in torture, who with their laſt breaths curſe *ambition* and all its direful train ; when every breeze wafted odours and Sabean ſweets ; an age, which after poets have dignified with the name of the golden. In this early ſtate of creation, in a ſolemn ſequeſtered vale, *Wiſdom* ſpent ſome delightful hours on the earth, with his chaſte ſpouſe *Truth*, whom he had brought down from the grand empyrean. She was the firſt-born of *Jove*, ſhe had a daughter by *Wiſdom*, whom ſhe named *Contemplation*, who alſo accompanied them from the celeſtial abodes : This lovely maid had health and innocence blended with a mild ſerenity on her countenance, ſhe delighted by turns to liſten to the inſtructions of her parents. She poſſeſſed a clear head and warm heart, with a retentive memory ; yet before ſhe admitted any thing to fix on her mind, as a rule of life and manners, ſhe weighed it in her father's *ſcales*, which were poiſed with the utmoſt exactneſs, or viewed it through the mirror of her mother, a glaſs which, for juſt repreſentation, had no equal : it was a pure *ſubſtance*, and tempered by the hands of *Jove* himſelf. In thoſe days *Wiſdom* poſſeſſed an art which is quite loſt to the world now, namely, that of bringing words to a viſible criterion, and they were light or heavy in the ſcales, beautiful or deformed in the glaſs, in proportion as they accorded or diſagreed with the heart of the ſpeakers. The neighbouring nymphs and ſhepherds took all opportunities to engage *Contemplation* in their innocent ſports and paſtimes. But though a ſweet diſpoſition and deſire of obliging led her ſometimes to partake of theſe recreations, yet ſhe never was ſo happy as when with her parents, ſettled in the *Placid Grove*, for that was the name of the vale where *Wiſdom* and *Truth* had taken their abode below.

But how ſhort-lived are all earthly pleaſures! The content of this amiable little family was diſcompoſed by the arrival of a new neighbour to the *Placid Grove*.

She was a gay and airy beauty, ſent, as one would think, for ſome myſterious end, to diſturb the peace of mankind, and thwart even the plans of the gods themſelves. Her name was *Falſhood*. She pitched her tent on the *Mount* of *Vanity*, which commmanded a diſtant view of the *Placid Grove*, which embelliſhed, with a beautiful variety, the ſcenery of her hill, with a contraſted ſhade.

She made ſplendid entertainments for all the neighbouring ſwains, which had more the appearance of oſtentation, than of that elegant ſimplicity and true taſte, which prevailed in the dwelling of *Wiſdom* and *Truth*.

The happy pair had a high ſenſe of ſocial politeneſs; ſo on the arrival of *Falſhood* to the neighbourhood, they ſent verbal compliments by their head ſervant, *Sincerity*, (for meſſage cards were not then in vogue) to tell her, they intended her an early viſit, to welcome her to that part of the world. *Falſhood* received this piece of attention with the warmeſt expreſſions of gratitude for the honour intended her. Indeed a fine flow of words, and a redundancy of well aſſorted phraſes, were among her peculiar excellencies, and continue to be ſo, to the preſent time, with all who are her adopted children.

She ornamented her houſe with the utmoſt neatneſs and elegance, on the day ſhe expected to ſee the noble pair: She removed ſeveral pieces of furniture out of ſight, though favourites of her own, that ſhe knew would offend the ſeverity of *Wiſdom* and the delicacy of *Truth*. Amongſt the removed paintings were "*Venus* riſing from the ſea." "*Semele* waiting the deſcent of *Jove* in all his glory." "*Mars* and *Venus* in the net of *Vulcan*," "*Pluto* ſtealing *Proſerpine*," "*Europa* and the *Bull*," with many others, celebrated in later days by Ovid. In this reform ſhe was aſſiſted, with great alertneſs, by her nymphs, *Wit* and *Fancy*, who had been formerly in the employ of *Wiſdom* and *Truth*; but for ſome indiſcretions were diſmiſſed their ſervice. They immediately liſted themſelves under the banners of *Falſhood*, and were perfectly acquainted with the taſte of their old patrons.

Wiſdom and his Conſort left their young daughter *Contemplation* at home, on the day they went to the *Mount of Vanity*; for they were extremely careful how they introduced her into ſtrange company. She paſſed the day very tranquil by the ſide of a clear rivulet, under the ſhade of a ſpreading ſycamore, with her favourite attendant *Content*, who joined with *Sincerity* to amuſe her. Among her favourite entertainments was that of looking over fine paintings, ſome drawn by the hands of her mother, and others by the pencil of *Apollo*, who had a prophetical knowledge of events that would, ages after, be the theme of the *poet* and *painter*: And as he inſpired each, they followed intuitively thoſe firſt *archetypes, contained* after in their noble works: There were repreſented the happy ſpirits in the Elyſian fields, after the toil of life was paſt, reaping the rewards of conflicting virtue. "In one picture was *Socrates*, in his laſt moments, pouring a libation to the gods, of the poiſoned draught he was on the point of ſwallowing;" "Cato with the *ſword* and *book*, as deſcribed by Addiſon." The noble Leonidas at the *Streights* of Thermopylæ with his band, and the *Britiſh Epaminondas, Wolfe*, in his laſt moments, as drawn by the pencil of *Weſt*, whom Apollo afterward inſpired, as alſo the *American Epaminondas, Warren*, as touched by the hand of *Trumbull*, glowed in the abodes of *Wiſdom* and *Truth*, from the celeſtial *preſcience* of Apollo.

Among the female worthies that *Contemplation* delighted to gaze on were *Portia* with the wound on her thigh. *Lucretia* accuſing *Tarquin*. The noble *Arria* preſenting the dagger to *Pætus*, ſmiling in death, and animating her huſband. In another ſcene ſhone, with all the pathetic

grace of filial affection, " the *Roman daughter* ſuckling her ancient father in priſon, when ſentenced to be ſtarved for a ſtate crime." And of later days, the poet's theme, as ſung by *Thomſon*, the lovely *Lavinia*, contraſted with her " feeble widowed mother;" and ſhining in another part, in rural ſimplicity, in the waving fertile fields of the *Arcadian Palæmon;*

" His form was freſher than the morning roſe
" When the dew wets its leaves, unſtained and pure
" As is the lilly and the mountain ſnow."

Then towered above her ſex, as told by the immortal *Richardſon*, *Clariſſa* with the pen-knife turned towards her own breaſt! With the contemptible *Lovelace*, and the female crew, ſneaking off, abaſhed and frightened with conſcious guilt. And laſt, though not meaneſt of the collection, you ſaw the lovely, to appearance dying *Maniac*, *Cecilia*, her bed ſide adorned with *the* kneeling, heart-ſoftened *miſanthropiſt*; and the little children, whom her bounty in happier days had cloathed and ſchooled, lifting up their innocent hands and voices to the God of all mercy, for the reſtoration of her life and ſenſes. Such was the furniture of the Placid Grove!

Falſhood was that day dreſſed in a moſt becoming negligee, and with leſs profuſion of finery than common about her own perſon. Her whole manner and deportment had ſuch an air of integrity, that *Truth*, artleſs *Truth*, was delighted with her neighbour, and venerable *Wiſdom* was more pleaſed than uſual, in ſo early an acquaintance: her captivating behaviour ſtripped him of all auſterity; and *Truth* was rejoiced to ſee him enjoy the company of this engaging female; for her generous heart always expanded in proportion as ſhe ſaw *Wiſdom* happy. They did not take that day the *Glaſs* nor *Scales* with them, as *Contemplation* begged to have them in their abſence.

Falſhood did not take all this pains to make herſelf agreeable to her new gueſts from any real pleaſure ſhe had in their ſociety, but ſhe had a great ſhare of pride, though not of the right kind, in her compoſition; and ſhe wiſhed for the countenance of *Wiſdom* and *Truth*, to give her conſequence in the eyes of the country around.

The day was ſpent in the moſt entertaining and improving converſation, and the evening enlivened with ſprightly ſallies from *Wit* and *Fancy*, but the utmoſt decency was preſerved on all ſides.

The company parted, with mutual congratulations on the nearneſs of their ſituations, which would give them ſuch frequent opportunities of ſeeing one another. On taking leave, *Truth* made an apology to *Falſhood*, that ſhe could not aſk her ſo ſoon to the Placid Grove as ſhe could wiſh; for ſhe was engaged to paſs ſome days in the celeſtial regions on a viſit to her father *Jove*, but ſo ſoon as ſhe returned, ſhe hoped ſhe ſhould be favoured with an early acknowledgment of the viſit ſhe had made to *Vanity-Mount*. *Falſhood* directly aſked if *Wiſdom* was to accompany her on this agreeable tour? *Truth* replied " No; for *Wiſdom* had engaged to inſtruct *Ingenuity* in ſome uſeful arts, for the forwarding of agriculture among the honeſt ruſticks that lived about the Placid Grove; and that ſhe only took her daughter *Contem-*

plation with her, to visit her grand-father, who delighted in the maiden."

The noble pair returned home, and spent one more happy night in the Placid Grove, when early the next morning, *Truth* and her daughter ascended their eagle-drawn car, which presently whirled them, (superior to any *Balloon*) with a smooth but rapid flight, to the confines of the celestial abodes. The doors of jasper flew open to receive them, and shut with impetuous recoil, as conscious they were the regions which were doomed to contain their native inhabitants, who had returned to their own abodes, as their proper asylum.

Here, for a season, we shall leave them, and return to a less happy spot.

On the evening of one long summer's day, *Wisdom* had returned fatigued, after passing many hours in the woods, teaching his pupil *Ingenuity* some mechanic arts: in this employ he took much pleasure, as his pupil was uncommonly quick of apprehension, and very docile. He was about to taste what a celebrated author called, many ages after,

> "Tired nature's sweet restorer balmy sleep,"

when he was suddenly roused by the sound of a female voice in distress. He immediately flew to her assistance, and met at his door *Falshood*, with dishevelled locks, and trembling steps, all frightened and disordered. With a happy assumed dignity she attempted to recompose her flying robes, which seemed as though they had suffered violence in some late rencounter.

"Oh Wisdom cried she, almost breathless, good Wisdom, is this your happy asylum!" Then down on her bended knees she fell in low prostrations to *Diana* the goddess of chastity.

"Here, said she, let me first, in humble adoration, bow to the divine patroness of injured innocence, who has so lately condescended to save my decent limbs from yon vile ruffians, else my virgin honour had been soiled and polluted, and I should have offended against the gods, by endeavouring to put an end to my own being, hurt with the recollection of past irrevocable indecencies."

After she had, with much vehemence, pronounced this theatrical harangue, she flung herself down, in a careless captivating attitude, on a green bench in the chamber of Wisdom. "Be calm, madam, replied *Wisdom*, these outrages are new in the *Placid Grove*: Before next setting sun, depend upon it, we will find means to rid you of any future fears from these lawless invaders: In the mean time, be pleased to take a draught of an excellent wine, made by the direction of my amiable wife, and it will restore your fainting spirits, which I see are greatly agitated by your late alarm."

"Thanks to my good neighbour, replied Falshood, for his kind attention to me; I am indeed much fluttered, but of so delicate a tone are my nerves and the texture of my brain, that they can bear nothing, in common, but the pure element, and on extraordinary occasions, a particular liquor, a family restorative, which at parting my dear mother *Subtlety* gave me, and charged me to use on cases of emergency.

Now I pay so high a regard to the commands of a parent that I dare not disobey her; but if you will allow one of your domestics to go and fetch it from the Mount of Vanity, I will drink a little of it, which will enable me to return home; and leave you to your repose, which I blush to think I have so long invaded." Old *Honesty*, a faithful servant of *Wisdom*, was dispatched with speed for the bottle, and though he dared not disobey the commands of his master, he muttered as he went out, "that he thought the *Placid Grove* had as good liquor in it as the *Mount of Vanity*."

The Cordial however was quickly brought, and *Falsehood* drank largely of it, and pressed *Wisdom*, with the most endearing smiles, to follow her example. He at first declined it, and looked about for his *scales* to prove its virtues: But *Falsehood* having heard much of these famous scales, on her first entering the chamber, slyly hid them, as they lay on the table by the bed-side of *Wisdom*, where they were each night deposited.

Wisdom, at length, overcome by her perswasion, tasted the liquor: it was highly flavoured; he took a second and a third draught, each larger than the former, and at last became intoxicated. *Falsehood* then flung herself on the couch of *Truth*. *Wisdom* thought he had his dear spouse *Truth* by his side, and he took her to his bosom with an ardent embrace; but when reason and the morning broke in on his bewildered mind, how was he shocked to find the mistake he had made: He flew from the arms of *Falsehood*, the alluring Syren, in a transport of grief and rage, as though she had been a deformed hag. In vain he called on *Truth*, distant injured Truth, to forgive; she was too far off to hear his vehement lamentations.

Falsehood was conscious that so soon as known she must lose all her influence; therefore she hastened back as quick as possible to the Mount of Vanity, to draw after her fresh votaries to vice.

Wisdom passed some days in the most heart-rending anxiety, and what sentiments revolved in his mind would be much too tedious to attempt to give a detail of here; but after fluctuating what course was best to take, he was determined by a maxim he often had in his mouth; namely, "*Honesty is the best policy*." And he pursued this plain road in the matter.

He wrote a faithful narrative of the late unhappy affair; and dispatched it to *Truth* by the hands of *Sincerity*; he earnestly urged her forgiveness and a speedy return. *Truth* received this letter with a calm and conscious dignity, which they only know who have never deviated from the paths of rectitude and honour.

She was grieved at the soul for the fall of *Wisdom*, she loved him with a rational affection, she pitied him, but it was incompatible with her awful and celestial nature to return to his embrace, after he had been contaminated with the touch of *Falsehood*.

She returned for answer, "That she was much afflicted for what had passed; but recriminations were vain, and useless; that for his sake more, than for her own, she hoped that he would desist from any further commerce with *Falsehood*, that she would be ever ready to assist him with her advice, and grant all his reasonable requests, when brought her by the hands of *Sincerity*, and by that nymph she would

send down his daughter *Contemplation* to amuse him; that she herself would perhaps deign to pay him a flying visit, but never return to live on earth as his spouse; and this she sealed with her *Father's* adamantine signet, in which was engraven *Mount Atlas*, with a flaming torch, lighted by her own steady hand from a *Sun-beam*, The motto of the seal was, "*Immoveable.*"

It was with grief that *Wisdom* read her resolution, but it was in vain to repine, for he knew that no intreaties whatever could change a decree thus sealed: therefore he endeavoured to submit to his fate, for it was an essential part of his character, not to lament for things irremediable, but to take warning from his parent *Experience* not to repeat his error. But now we shall for a season leave the *Grove*, and give a peep at the *Mount*, where *Falsehood*, in nine months after her visit to *Wisdom*, (whom she saw no more) is now very much engaged with her gossips, which ended in the birth of a son, to whom she gave the name of *Cunning*.

(End of the First Part.)

FOR THE UNIVERSAL AYSLUM.

A New DIALOGUE *of the* DEAD; *between* MAJOR ----------, *of the late* CONTINENTAL ARMY, *and* CUDJOE, *formerly an* AFRICAN SLAVE.

Major ——.

SO, old man, where are you running in so much haste? Stop—tell me your name and your business.

Cudjoe.] My name is Cudjoe—I am going to request permission to return, for a few hours, to the Potter's-field, in Philadelphia, to have my ashes removed from the neighbourhood of yours. I have not enjoyed a moment's peace since your dust came so near mine.

Major ——.] What have I done, my friend, to make you so much afraid of my dust?

Cudjoe.] You have imbrued your hands in your own blood. No messenger of death was sent to convey you to your grave. You rushed into the presence of your maker, without being called for!

Major ——.] I had outlived my usefulness to my friends and country, and therefore I thought death preferable to an useless life.

Cudjoe.] No—no; no such thing.—Who made you a judge of that?—Your life belonged to God, and to the Congress, and to General Washington.—When you killed yourself, you rebelled against God, turned traitor to your country, and deserted your post. You must expect, therefore, to be tried here, not only for murder, but for treason and desertion.

Major ——.] But you forget the cause that led me to take away my life.—You do not make proper allowance for the anguish of disappointed love.

Cudjoe.] Love! disappointed love! no, no: it is impossible. A

Frenchman has too much ſenſe to die for love. He keeps his life for his king; and thinks it enough to confer his fame, his affections, and his compliments upon his miſtreſs.

Major ——.] But you forget, my friend, that your countrymen, the Africans, often put an end to their lives, in the Weſt-Indies.

Cudjoe.] True! this is the caſe; and if any thing could juſtify ſelf-murder, it would be the extreme miſery to which my countrymen have been doomed in the Weſt-Indies, by the white people. What are all the pangs of an unſucceſsful courtſhip, compared with the miſery of being torn from one's family, friends, and country; and being compelled to ſpend a long life in labour, want, and captivity. But even this complicated wretchedneſs does not juſtify a man's putting an end to his life; and the ſlaves who ſubmit with reſignation to their fate, refuſe to keep company with thoſe ſlaves who attempt to deliver themſelves in that way. Beſides, the reaſon why a poor negro cuts his throat, is the very reaſon why a Frenchman ſhould not do it. It is the deſperate reſource of ignorance and ſtupidity. A Frenchman, educated in the ſchool of philoſophy and chriſtianity, ſhould know how to ſupport himſelf under any misfortune.

Major ——.] Enough, my friend, of your grave lecture. Pray ſhew me my apartment in this new world.

Cudjoe.] There is none provided for you. You muſt wander here for ever. Your company will inſpire horror, wherever you go. Even Cain himſelf, who murdered his brother, thinks himſelf leſs guilty than the man who murdered himſelf. Your puniſhment will be, to love without hope, and to repent without——But I muſt haſten to ſecure my aſhes from pollution.

On the PROPERTIES *imparted to* VINOUS LIQUORS *by* FIXED AIR.

(*From* PENINGTON'S *Eſſay on* FERMENTATION.)

FIXED air is the cauſe of the briſkneſs, pungent taſte, and ſparkling appearance of vinous liquors; and it is remarkable, that *in equal circumſtances*, the colder they are, the more air they contain. It is alſo a curious fact, that the fixed air in liquors muſt be in a peculiar ſtate, otherwiſe they do not poſſeſs that briſkneſs or pungency we ſpoke of: in fact it muſt be on the point of aſſuming its elaſtic form: hence liquors are not ſo briſk in cold as in warm weather, and a connoiſſeur in *porter* for inſtance will tell you, that a bottle ſhall open very briſk in a warm day, and upon the coming on of cold weather, all the reſt ſhall be flat and dead; but let them be corked up, and kept in a warm room for a few days, they will all recover their briſkneſs, nay, I have ſeen a bottle opened in a cold day that has been quite vapid, which was made briſk and lively by corking it up tight again, and ſetting it, for ten or twelve minutes, in a baſon of water little more than milk-warm.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

IMPARTIAL REVIEW

OF LATE

American Publications.

An Explanation of the MAGNETIC ATLAS, *or* VARIATION CHART:

Projected on a plan entirely new, by which the MAGNETIC VARIATION *on any part of the globe may be precisely determined, for any time, past, present, or future; and the Variation and Latitude being accurately known, the* LONGITUDE *is of consequence truly determined. By* JOHN CHURCHMAN. [Philadelphia. Price, with the chart, three dollars.]

IF this little tract does not give the reader a high opinion of Mr. Churchman's abilities, as a mathematician, it will convince him that he has considered his subject with great attention, and that his inquiries have not been altogether unsuccessful.

The variation of the magnetic needle has long appeared sufficiently interesting to the curious; and the respectable list of subscribers prefixed to this publication shews how acceptable a work on this subject, containing real information, would be to the public. But the want of materials, that is, of accurate observations, has hitherto prevented any one from attempting a complete theory of the variation. Indeed little has been done in this matter since Dr. Halley's time. Mr. Churchman, encouraged perhaps by the great number of magnetical observations which have been made public within a few years past, and particularly in the accounts of Capt. Cook's voyages, has ventured to encounter "*the Sarcasms of ignorance and malevolence, and the world's dread laugh,*" as he expresses it in his preface, by publishing, if not a complete theory of the variation, what will be found, if it bears the test of experiment, to be a good foundation for such a theory.

The first chapter is entitled, *Elements of Magnetism.* It contains upwards of fifty Propositions, Definitions, Axioms, Postulates and Corollaries. These give the work a scientific appearance, but few of them are of much importance, excepting the 2d. 3d. 8th. and 9th. propositions; in the two former he determines the situations of the two magnetic points, and in the two latter ascertains their velocities, with too great an affectation of accuracy.

Dr Halley, by placing the magnetic pole, which he supposed to govern the needle in Europe, between the Islands of Britain and the north pole, found it necessary to allow that pole a progressive motion from east to west, in order to account for the direction of the needle becoming more westerly. And finding the variation westerly

in North America, he was obliged to have recourſe to another magnetic pole, ſituated ſome where in the northern part of that continent. He likewiſe ſuppoſed two other magnetic poles, in the ſouthern hemiſphere. Our author, by placing the magnetic point beyond the pole of the world, with reſpect to Britain, during the laſt century, determines the motion of that point, or pole, to be the contrary way, that is, from weſt to eaſt, and very happily gets rid of Dr. Halley's ſecond magnetic pole, becauſe the firſt, in the ſituation our author places it, may be ſuppoſed to govern the needle in North America as well as in Europe. It is, however, not to be ſuppoſed that the very ſagacious Dr. Halley would have encumbered his ſyſtem with four magnetic poles, if he could poſſibly have reconciled the effects of only two with obſervation. If Mr Churchman can reconcile ſome accounts of variation, which have been publiſhed, with his theory, there are others which he muſt reject as groſsly erroneous, or confeſs the theory to be very imperfect.

Our author has no where determined the relative force of the two magnetic points, nor the proportion in which the force decreaſes, as the points become more remote. And yet until this is done, as Dr. Halley judiciouſly obſerves, "it were a vain attempt to go about to calculate." There are nevertheleſs many caſes in which our author's theory cannot be reconciled to obſervation, by taking the relative forces of the two points in any proportion whatever. We ſhall give two or three inſtances.

In 1766 at the Cape of Good Hope, according to our author's theory, the north magnetic point would cauſe a variation of 15° 56′ weſt, and the ſouth magnetic point a variation of 16° 30′ the ſame way. The variation of the needle ought therefore to have been ſome where between thoſe two quantities, let the forces of the two poles be what they may. But Mr. Samuel Dunn tells us, that at that time the variation at the Cape was 19° 40′, and it was ſtill more by other accounts. Again, in 1670, at the entrance of the Straits of Magellan, the ſouth magnetic point would cauſe a variation of 12° 50′ Eaſt, and the north pole 23° 13′ weſt. So that if any force whatever be allowed to the northern point, in the ſouthern hemiſphere, the variation, if eaſt, ought to be leſs than 12° 50′. But, according to Dr. Halley, the variation at the entrance of the Straits was at that time 17° eaſt. There is another inſtance recorded by Dr. Halley, in which the error is ſtill much greater. In 1716, in lat. 78° N. and long. 80° weſt, according to the theory, the north magnetic point would give a variation of 18° 11′ weſt, and the ſouth point about 88°½ eaſt. In this caſe, if the ſouth point has any effect in high northern latitudes, it muſt have diminiſhed the weſt variation of the northern point; but by obſervation the variation was found to be 57° weſt.

We will nevertheleſs admit, that there may be a very general agreement between the theory and obſervation, eſpecially in France, England, and this part of North America. June 1ſt. 1786, at the Royal Obſervatory at Paris, the variation was obſerved to be 21° 27′ weſt. By our author's theory the north magnetic point gave a variation of 21° 2′ weſt, and the ſouth point 24° 47′ the ſame way. But on account of the great diſtance of that point, its influence may

be ſuppoſed only ſufficient to add about 25′ to the variation of the northern point. A very few years will in ſome meaſure confirm or ſet aſide this theory; for, if there be any truth in it, the magnetic needle at Paris, muſt increaſe its variation but very little more, before it ſtops, and then begins to diminiſh. Thoſe who chuſe to take the pains of comparing the numerous obſervations of the variation, to be found in modern voyages, with this theory, will judge for themſelves.

One of our author's corollaries is as follows, "If the influence of each magnetic point were equal, the magnetic meridians would be all circular curves." And another, "Hence as, by the preſent method, leſſer circles of the ſphere are calculated, as well as great circles, a new branch of ſcience is obtained." From theſe, as well as ſeveral other paſſages in the work, the author ſeems to think that his magnetic meridians may all be either great or leſſer circles of the ſphere. There is indeed one caſe, which may be ſuppoſed, and we wiſh our author had pointed it out, wherein all the magnetic meridians would really be circles. If the magnetic points are placed on the ſurface of the globe, and their forces are equal at equal diſtances, *and every where inverſely as the lineal diſtances of the point from the needle;* then will the magnetic meridians be true circles, (ſetting aſide the elliptical figure of the earth) and the circles will be the ſections of the ſurface of the globe, by planes paſſing through the magnetic points and the needle. But it is not probable that this caſe actually takes place in nature. The phenomena of the dipping needle ſeem to ſhew that the magnetic points are far below the ſurface, and their forces probably vary much faſter than in a ſimple inverſe proportion of the diſtance.

CHAP. II. is entitled, "Solution of ſeveral problems." The ſecond problem is, "*Given, the Variation of the Compaſs and Latitude, required the Longitude.*"

As our author is not the firſt who has ſuppoſed two magnetical points ſufficient to explain the direction of the needle, ſo neither is he the firſt who has propoſed to determine the longitude by the variation. It has been done repeatedly by others, and particularly by Mr. Dunn more than thirty years ago. But it will be acknowledged, we believe, by thoſe who underſtand the ſubject, that the philoſophy of magnetiſm is, as yet, much too imperfect for this purpoſe. We ſincerely wiſh our author ſucceſs, in his further endeavours to improve it, nor do we regret that the ſubject is not in other hands. Obſtinate perſeverance may perhaps ſucceed, when philoſophical knowledge would only diſcourage.

CHAP. III. "*The objection of falſe Variation removed.*" Our author ſays, "The principal cauſe of falſe variation has been, with great reaſon, attributed to the influence which the *iron* on board the ſhip has over the magnetic needle: it was, therefore, natural to conſider, how this main objection might be overcome. The following method has been found, by actual obſervation and experiment, to have the deſired effect:

It is nothing more than fixing a true meridian on the ſhore, out of the reach of the attraction of iron: here the variation is taken

by different compaſſes on this meridian; and if they are all true, they give the ſame variation at the ſame time and place; then, before the ſhip ſails, the variation is taken on board, having the ſhip turned, if occaſion ſhould require, on every point of the compaſs; and, by noting the difference between the true variation on the true meridian, and the falſe variation on board, a table of difference may be conſtructed, which perhaps will always give the allowance neceſſary to be made for falſe variation, throughout any voyage."

CHAP. IV, V, and VI. relate to the conſtruction of the *Magnetic Atlas, or Chart for the Northern Hemiſphere*, which accompanies the pamphlet.

CHAP. VII. The author promiſes us a chart of the Southern Hemiſphere, and "a new work to be entitled, THE MAGNETIC ALMANAC, containing an univerſal ſet of tables, ſhewing what latitude and variation correſpond with any part of any meridian, &c. This work has been ſome time preparing for the preſs; and will be the reſult of tens of thouſands of calculations." We are very apprehenſive that the principal data from which theſe calculations ought to be made are yet entirely unknown.

CHAP. VIII, is entitled, "*Hints concerning the cauſe of the Magnetic Variation.*" The only hint concerning this cauſe, which we meet with in this chapter, is contained in the following words. "The celebrated Dr. Halley ſuppoſed the cauſe to be below the ſurface, and communicated by the earth;—but the northern magnetic point is found to move faſter than the earth, from weſt to eaſt, as will appear by the tables. And as it is an axiom long eſtabliſhed, that" No cauſe can give what it has not itſelf,"--it is left to the judgment of others, whether, or not, the earth can give a ſwifter motion than it it has itſelf, to a nucleus therein contained."

"With a view to experiment," ſays our author, "I have made ſeveral trials to embark on a voyage to that part of Baffin's bay, where the north point of the needle is attracted; hoping that ſome obſervations might be made, as well to determine how nearly the variation could be aſcertained, as to throw ſome light on this myſterious principle." The expenſes attending experiments of this kind are ill ſuited to the private purſe of an individual, and if we conſider the advantage which might be derived to navigation from a complete theory of the variation, independent of finding the longitude, the encouragement of the public ſeems highly proper, to every rational attempt to obtain ſuch a theory.

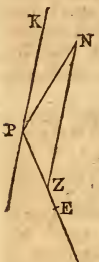
CHAP. IX. is entitled, *The method of proving the Revolutions of the two Magnetic Points.* In this chapter the author determines the periods of the revolution of the magnetic points, from his own theory and tables; and ſhews the agreement of theſe with a few obſervations.

CHAP. X. ON THE MAGNETIC TIDES. In this chapter our author aſcribes all the principal inundations which have deſolated the world, from Noah's flood to the preſent time, to the effects of the two magnetic points. He ſeems to think that theſe two points influence the center of gravity in the earth, ſo that when they are both on the ſame ſide of the earth's axis, the center of gravity is likewiſe removed, from the earth's center, towards that ſide; hence a partial inundation muſt take place in countries ſituated between thoſe two points. The

same effect, in a smaller degree, will be produced by one point, in places situated under the same meridian with it. On these principles he threatens the people of Holland, in the next century, with an inundation similar to that they experienced in 1446.

We conceive it would not have been inconsistent with our author's views, to have given his readers, amongst his numerous propositions, the following theorem. Our mathematical readers will not be displeased that we supply the deficiency.

To determine the direction of the magnetical needle at any particular place; the situation of the two magnetic points, their relative forces at equal distances, and the law by which those forces decrease when the distances increase, being known.



Let N and S be the two magnetic points, in their proper direction from the given place P. Let N P and S P be two perpendiculars, falling from the points N and S, on a diameter of the earth passing through P. Let x and y be the direct lineal distances of the points N and S from P, and let the forces of the points be in the inverse proportion of any power ^{m} of the direct distance. On P S, produced if necessay, take P E to P S as x^{m+1} to y^{m+1}, and take P Z to P E as the force of S to the force of N at equal distances, then shall Z N (or its parallel P K, if you please) be the direction of the needle. And this will be true, whether the magnetic points are placed below or above the earth's surface, at any distance whatever.

OUABI: *or the* VIRTUES *of* NATURE. *An* INDIAN TALE; *In four* CANTOS. *By* PHILENIA, *a Lady of* BOSTON. [Printed at Boston. Price three eighths of a dollar.]

THE manners of the original inhabitants of this continent have at different times been the theme of commendation. At first view there is something in them which powerfully excites our admiration. Undaunted courage, ardent patriotism, hospitality to strangers, gratitude to friends, respect to the heroes of their nation, and conjugal fidelity, form an exceedingly interesting picture. The absence of an host of vices resulting from society renders this still more attractive. A vivid imagination will readily add to this, until we at length conceive the poetical descriptions of the golden age to be realized. Poets and philosophers have joined in describing the excellencies of this state of society, and contrasting it with the miseries of civil government; and we regard with surprize the strange infatuation of mankind, who will not break the shackles imposed upon them by society, and fly to this happy state. But upon a nearer investigation, we are

mortified to find, that the picture has enchanted us only from its distance, and from the obscure light in which we had viewed it. We then discover, that most of the good qualities which had excited our admiration, are produced from the situation in which this people is placed; and that what appeared to us virtue is often times the effect of apathy. If the vices of civilized life are absent, its virtues are equally unknown. Revenge, cruelty, treachery, indolence, drunkenness, and a long catalogue of black vices, convince us that the perfection of this state existed only in our imagination; and that a civil government, with all its ills and inconveniencies, is still infinitely preferable to the savage state.

The fair author of the little poem before us, has, in a pleasing manner, painted some of the virtues of the rude inhabitants of America.

The story upon which her tale, with some variation, is founded, may be seen in the American Museum for September 1789; and was, we believe, originally written in French. It appears well calculated for poety, and affords ample room for tender and animated description.

The following is a highly coloured representation of the vices of civilized life.

OFT the active chase they dare,
Oft they join the glorious war,
'Tis at home their vices grow,
There they yield to ev'ry foe;
There unnumber'd demons reign,
Led by Terror, Guilt and Pain;
Rash Revenge, with eye-balls rolling,
Hateful Malice, always scowling,
Base Duplicity deceiving,
Cruel Slander, still believing,
Insolence to wealth allied,
Rude, Unfeeling, Trampling Pride,
Prudish Envy's ready sneer,
Base Neglect and dastard Fear,
Jealousy with bitter sigh,
Low Suspicion's jaundic'd eye,
Lying Fraud, with treach'rous smile,
Hard Reproach, and Meanness vile,
Affectation's sick'ning form,
Passion, always in a storm;
These are foes I leave behind,
These the Traitors of the mind,
Dreadful as the battle's roar,
Fearful as the conq'ror's pow'r.

The following description of the virtues of the savage state, is a pleasing contrast to it. How far either is just it is not difficult to perceive.

Native Reason's piercing eye,
Melting Pity's tender sigh,
Changeless Virtue's living flame,
Meek Contentment, free from blame,
Open Friendship's gen'rous care,
Ev'ry boon of life is here!

The following stanzas are not devoid of merit.

" Now for the war-feaſt all the chiefs prepare,
The Jetty draught exhauſts the gen'rous bowl,
And the Fierce dance,* fit emblem of the war,
Swells the great mind, and fires the kindling ſoul.

Tho' ſongs of vengeance ev'ry breaſt inſpire,
The peaceful Calumet ſucceeds the feaſt,
Till livid glimmerings mark the ſinking fire,
And the gem'd ſkies proclaim the hour of reſt.

Ere the firſt bluſh of day illumes the morn,
The chiefs, impatient for the battle, riſe;
With warlike arms their colour'd limbs adorn,
While glowing valour ſparkles in their eyes.

Now the ſtrong hatchet hews whole nations down,
Now deathful ſhowers of miſſive darts deſcend,
The echoing war-whoop drowns the dying groan,
And ſhouts of vict'ry ev'ry boſom rend."

" The death ſong echo'd thro' the hollow wood,
Juſt when Celario led his warrior-train,
Th' affrighted foe diſcard the work of blood,
And fly impetuous o'er the arid plain.

Thus when a carcaſe clogs the op'ning vale,
And birds of prey in prowling circles throng,
If ſome fierce hound approach the tainted gale,
He drives the wild relentleſs brood along.

Pale horror ſtalks, and ſwift deſtruction reigns,
Carnage and death pollute the ruin'd glade,
'Till nature's wearied arm a reſpite gains,
When night pacific ſpreads her ſable ſhade.

The following lines are truly beautiful.

No daring vice could e'er control
Azâkia's unpolluted ſoul.
Born amidſt virtues favor'd race,
Her mind as faultleſs as her face,
Vain muſt each daring effort prove,
That uncorrupted breaſt to move;
For on the pure tranſlucid ſtream
In vain the midnight lightnings beam;
It lifts its boſom to the day,
Unſullied as the ſolar ray.

We cannot conceive what can have induced our author to make choice of the awkward meaſure which has long been appropriated to elegies; nor why ſhe has changed her meaſure when ſhe introduces dialogue. We conceive, uniformity would have had a better effect, and that the common Engliſh heroic meaſure would have been infinitely preferable.

* *The dance is rather an act of devotion, than of recreation, and conſtitutes a part of all their public ceremonies.*

See William Penn's Letters.

CHEMICAL *and* ECONOMICAL ESSAYS, *designed to illustrate the Connexion between the Theory and Practice of Chemistry, and the Application of that Science to some of the Arts and Manufactures of the* UNITED STATES *of* AMERICA. *By* JOHN PENINGTON. [Philadelphia. Price one dollar.]

OUR author's principal object being the improvement of those manufactures which are dependent on chemistry, his essays are generally written in a plain style, divested, in a great degree, of those technical terms which none but adepts in the science understand. This renders the work easy to be understood by the artist or mere practical chemist. Some of the essays, however, are of a theoretical nature, and many of them contain new and ingenious speculations, which may not be uninteresting even to the man of science. Though some of these essays made their original appearance in the Columbian Magazine, yet as many of our present subscribers may not have seen them, we shall, on their account, briefly take notice of the several essays, in the order in which they occur in the work.

Essay I contains some observations on the apparatus necessary for a chemist. The furnace is particularly enlarged on, and engravings are given of Dr. Black's portable furnace, and of an improved one by our author. Instead of a cylindrical he recommends a conical shape, and makes his furnace of thin plate-iron, hence it is more portable than Dr. Black's. He also uses two grates, one placed higher up and the other lower down in the furnace, the former to be used when a moderate, the latter when an intense heat is required; two doors are made in the side of the furnace, contiguous to the grates, for the convenience of putting in the fuel, and of putting in and taking out the substances to be acted upon by the fire; and the ash-hole door, near the bottom of the furnace, is to be left open for the admission of air, to support the combustion. Dr. Black's furnace has but one grate, and is without any other opening than a hole at top, for putting in fuel, &c. hence it would seem better calculated than the other to confine heat, an important advantage to the chemist. Instead of an ash-hole door for the admission of air, Dr. Black's furnace has several small holes, any number of which may be left open, according to the degree of heat that may be required; this plan we should think preferable to the one proposed. Upon the whole, we leave it with the practical chemist to determine, whether a furnace shaped like our author's, but in every other respect similar to Dr. Black's, might not be preferable to either.

An account of the simple earths concludes Essay I; and directions for analyzing earths are given in Essay II. These particularly merit the attention of the potter.

Essay III contains some observations on salts in general, many curious facts respecting the chemical phenomenon of chrystallization; and a particular account of sea salt, epsom salt, and magnesia.

Sea-salt which is a cheap article, is known by chemists to contain

a large quantity of foſſil alkali, or kelp, which, if it could be ſeparated from the marine acid of the ſea-ſalt, might be ſold, in this country, for eight times the value of the ſea ſalt from which it was obtained. A cheap proceſs for effecting this would be a valuable diſcovery. We are ſorry to find that our author's experiments, for this purpoſe, have not been more ſucceſsful than thoſe of others who have gone before him.

One uſeful diſcovery, however, well worthy the attention of apothecaries, is communicated in this eſſay. Our author lays down a ſimple and cheap proceſs for preparing the magneſia of the ſhops. He took 6 ¼ pounds of pure epſom ſalt, and five pounds of the beſt coarſe ſalt, diſſolved them in four gallons of boiling water, and let them remain in a ſhallow tub for twenty four hours, when he obtained about nine pounds of chryſtallized Glauber's ſalt. To the liquor which remained he added ſix pounds of pure pot-aſh, diſſolved in pure water, and by conducting the reſt of the proceſs agreeably to the directions in the Edinburgh Diſpenſatory, his epſom ſalt yielded as large a quantity of magneſia as if no Glauber's ſalt had been obtained from it. The Glauber's ſalt was equal in value to all the epſom-ſalt uſed; ſo that the coſt of the magneſia was only the price of the ſix pounds of pot-aſh.

This ſhows the importance of theoretical knowledge. The idea of obtaining magneſia, by the above proceſs, was firſt ſuggeſted, our author tells us, by his knowledge of chemical attractions.

Eſſays IV and V, on the chemical attractions, and the analyſis and diſtinguiſhing characteriſticks of the different ſalts, are pretty full and ingenious. Theſe two eſſays will furniſh the medical ſtudent with much uſeful information reſpecting the ſalts; an object of chemiſtry to him peculiarly intereſting.

Eſſay VI contains directions for purifying the nitrous acid, or aqua-fortis, by means of a ſolution of lead. This our author thinks preferable to a ſolution of ſilver, which has been the purifying ingredient hitherto in uſe.

In Eſſay VII the pig-nut is deſcribed as an excellent aſtringent; and the impropriety of uſing any other menſtruum than cold water, to extract the virtue of the vegetable aſtringents, is mentioned. Having obſerved, that the yellowneſs which ink acquires by age is owing to an exceſs of copperas, he recommends the following proceſs for making a durable ink.

To make the moſt durable ink, therefore, we muſt ſtudy to find out the exact quantity of copperas neceſſary to make it, ſo that none ſhall remain which has not been acted upon by the aſtringent matter: This is, in many caſes, difficult, and without ſome knowledge of chemiſtry, impoſſible, I therefore think that I have fallen upon a method of making an ink, that ſhall be as unalterable as it is poſſible to make it by any aſtringent vegetable whatever; I diſſolve a quarter of an ounce of copperas in eight ounces of hot water, and add it to about four ounces of the cold infuſion of pig-nut (or the galls would anſwer in the ſame manner) but without having any gum diſſolved in it at firſt; the black inſoluble matter ſwims about like curds, for a while, and at length ſubſides; after ſtanding two or three hours, I find a quantity of colourleſs water above the black matter; this I pour gently off, and throw away, but without letting any of the ſediment paſs off with it; I then pour into it eight ounces more of hot water, and having let it ſtand, I draw it off as before; and this waſhing of the ſediment I repeat three or four times, and in the laſt waſhing

I contrive to pour off ſo much of the clear liquor, that only four ounces remain in my bottle, ſediment and all: and then adding about an eighth of an ounce of gum arabic to it, my ink is made, which from *theory* I ſay might be ſuppoſed to be unalterable; I only ſuppoſe ſo from theory, for it will require a trial of forty or fifty years, at leaſt, to *prove* its goodneſs: but it appears probable to me, becauſe the ſuperfluous copperas, which I am ſure all *common* ink contains unaltered, is in this ink entirely waſhed out by the repeated affuſions of freſh water.

Allum, when uſed in dying, our author ſays muſt operate either as an aſtringent or an acid. He think it is ſeldom uſeful as an aſtringent, and, if it be, that the pig-nut, or any other cheap aſtringent, may be employed in its ſtead; preſuming that its uſe generally depends on its redundant acid, he is of opinion that the vitriolic acid might ſafely be ſubſtituted for it.

(To be concluded next month.)

POLITICAL INQUIRIES: *To which is added a* PLAN *for the* General Eſtabliſhment *of* SCHOOLS *throughout the* United States. *By* ROBERT CORAM. [Printed at Wilmington. Price one fourth of a dollar.]

THE author of this pamphlet is a moſt violent declaimer againſt the inſtitution of civil government and the diviſion of property, which he thinks have given riſe to moſt of the vices and miſeries of mankind. He ſpeaks of the happineſs and virtue of the American Indians in ſtrong terms; and heightens the picture, by exhibiting a ſtriking contraſt of European wretchedneſs and vice. For this purpoſe, he gives a large collection of extracts from various authors, whoſe works are calculated to give a favourable view of ſavage life and a frightful one of civilized ſociety. The Abbe Raynal ſeems to be one of his greateſt favourites.

The following extract will enable the reader to form ſome idea of our author's ſentiments and manner.

Look around your cities, ye who boaſt of having eſtabliſhed the civilization and happineſs of man: See, at every corner of your ſtreets, ſome wretched object, with tattered garments, ſqualid look, and hopeleſs eye, publiſhing your lies in folio to the world. Hedged in the narrow ſtrait, between your ſanguinary laws, and the preſſing calls of hunger, he has no retreat; but, like an abortive being, created to no manner of purpoſe, his only wiſh is death. For of what uſe can life be, but to augment his ſufferings, by a compariſon of his deſperate lot with yours?

In reply to ſuch declamation as this, it might be ſaid, with much propriety, "Behold the men who exhibit ſuch an unfavourable view of ſociety, and who affect to admire the charms of uncivilized life, "publiſhing their lies in folio to the world," by ſtill continuing in that ſociety of which they give ſuch a hideous picture, when they have it in their power to be completely happy, by taking refuge among thoſe whoſe virtues and enjoyments they ſo warmly extol!"

Our author attempts a refutation of Blackſtone's doctrine of the origin of property; but not in that cool and candid manner which ſhould ever accompany the inveſtigation of truth.

So far as Mr. Coram's obſervations are calculated to expoſe the er-

rors and defects of the European syſtems of government, they may be uſeful, by ſerving as a caution to the people of America, to avoid thoſe forms of education and government, which have had ſuch fatal effects in other nations. In thoſe countries it has unfortunately been the practice of government, to neglect to inform the ſubject of his duty to ſociety, by means of a proper education, and yet to put him to death for a violation of that duty. Of the ſanguinary laws of Europe our author ſays,

Europeans have been taught to believe, that mankind have ſomething of the Devil ingrafted in their nature, that they are naturally ferocious, vicious, revengeful, and as void of reaſon as brutes, &c. &c. Hence their ſanguinary laws, which ſtring a man to a gibbet, for the value of twenty pence. They firſt frame an hypotheſis, by which they prove men to be wolves, and then treat them as if they really were ſuch.

And in another place,

It is a melancholy reflection, that in almoſt all ages and countries, men have been cruelly butchered, for crimes occaſioned by the laws; and which they never would have committed, had they not been deprived of their natural means of ſubſiſtence. But the governors of mankind ſeem never to have made any allowance for poverty; but like the ſtupid phyſician who preſcribed bleeding for every diſorder, they ſeem ever to have been diſtinguiſhed by an inſatiable thirſt for human blood.

Though we do not much admire ſome of the premiſes laid down by our author, which would apply ſtill more forcibly to the diſſolution of all civilized ſociety than to the eſtabliſhment of a plan of education; yet we heartily join with him in the concluſion, that education ought, in a free country, to be provided for by the government, and rendered equally eaſy to be obtained by every part of the community, by the poor as well as the rich.

If in adverting from a ſtate of nature, to a ſtate of civil ſociety, men gave up their natural liberty, and their common right to property, it is but juſt that they ſhould be protected in their civil liberty, and furniſhed with means of gaining excluſive property, in lieu of that natural liberty, and common right of property, which they had given up in exchange for the ſuppoſed advantages of civil ſociety; otherwiſe the change is for the worſe, and the general happineſs is ſacrificed for the benefit of a few. In all contracts, ſay civilians, there ſhould be a *quid pro quo*. If civil ſociety therefore deprives a man of his natural means of ſubſiſtence, it ſhould find him other means; otherwiſe civil ſociety is not a contract, but a ſelf-robbery, a robbery of the baſeſt kind.

Education then ought to be ſecured by government to every claſs of citizens, to every child in the ſtate. The citizens ſhould be inſtructed in ſciences by public ſchools; and in arts, by laws enacted for that purpoſe; by which parents and others, having authority over children, ſhould be compelled to bind them out, to certain trades or profeſſions, that they may be enabled to ſupport themſelves with becoming independency, when they ſhall arrive to years of maturity. Education ſhould not be left to the caprice, or negligence of parents, to chance, or confined to the children of wealthy citizens: it is a ſhame, a ſcandal to civilized ſociety, that part only of the citizens ſhould be ſent to colleges and univerſities to learn to cheat the reſt of their liberties. Are ye aware, legiſlators, that in making knowledge neceſſary to the ſubſiſtence of your ſubjects, ye are in duty bound to ſecure to them the means of acquiring it? Elſe what is the bond of ſociety, but a rope of ſand, incapable of ſupporting its own weight? A heterogeneous jumble of contradiction and abſurdity, from which the ſubject knows not how to extricate himſelf, but often falls a victim to his natural wants, or to cruel and inexorable laws—ſtarves or is hanged.

Mr. Coram has dealt ſo largely in quotations, that we preſume he has not ſeen *A plan for the Eſtabliſhment of public ſchools* &c. written by Dr. Ruſh, and publiſhed in 1786, otherwiſe he would not have taken to Mr. Webſter and himſelf, the merit of *originality* on this ſubject, if a writer can claim originality in recommending what has been long practiſed, in a certain degree, in Scotland and in the New-England States.

Having described the wretched situation of the country schools in the United States, he recommends changing them into public schools, to be supported by a general tax; and shows that a land tax of three pence or four-pence on every acre would be sufficient to defray all the expenses of such an establishment.

After a school education has been acquired, he thinks every person (he makes no exception) should be obliged to learn some art or trade.

The other branch of education, I mean instruction in arts, ought also to be secured to every individual, by laws enacted for that purpose, by which, parents and others having authority over youth, should be compelled to bind them out at certain ages, and for a limited time to persons professing mechanical or other branches.

It would be superfluous to insist on the necessity of trades—their use is obvious. I shall only remark, that considering the transitory nature of all human advantages, how soon a manmay be dispossessed of a very considerable property—how many avenues there are to misfortunes; a good trade seems to be the only sheet anchor on which we may firmly rely for safety, in the general storms of human adversity. How much then is it to be lamented, that ever the tyranny of fashion, or pride of birth, gave an idea of disgrace to those virtuous and useful occupations.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

PHILOSOPHY of AIR.

IT is an extraordinary fact, that most of the doctrines respecting air which have been published to the world as modern discoveries, within a few years past, were well known upwards of a century ago. From the *Journal de Physique* &c. for August 1790, published at Paris, we learn, that Dr. Mayow, who wrote in 1674, was perfectly acquainted with dephlogisticated air, the proportion of it in our atmosphere, and its uses in supporting combustion and animal life. From its use in combustion he gave it the epithet of *igneo-aerial*; and from its being contained in great quantity in nitre, *nitro-aerial*. To the absorption of this air he attributed the increase in the weight of metals, after having undergone the process of calcination. And he also relates processes for obtaining nitrous and inflammable airs. All these discoveries were known to him from actual experiments, which are related very particularly in his book, and illustrated by a number of plates.

These curious and interesting facts are taken, by Dr. de la Metherie, from a copy of Dr. Mayow's works, deposited in the Royal Library at Paris; where they had probably remained unnoticed for more than a century.

Few men have ever been allowed an undivided claim to originality in great and useful discoveries in science; and although Dr. Priestly, M. Lavoisier &c. may not have read the works of Dr Mayow, previously to their having made and published their experiments, the generality of mankind will doubtless entertain strong suspicions of the contrary.

THE

Columbian Parnassiad.

A FAIR Correspondent has favoured us with a number of poems in manuscript, signed SYLVIA, *written by a young lady, formerly of Philadelphia, who died some years ago. We have reason to believe that one or two of them were published about the time they were written; but as we think them possessed of a considerable share of merit, we shall insert the whole of them, in monthly portions, beginning with the following* ODE, *which appears to have been written in* 1775, *when the lady was no more than eighteen.*

ODE TO LIBERTY.

HAIL LIBERTY, thou goddess bright!
Grand source of every pure delight
The virtuous heart desires.
To *thee* my ardent vows I'll pay;
Vouchsafe t' accept the votive lay,
Which love of *thee* inspires!

To *thee* we owe, benignant power,
The fertile field, the fragrant bower,
With each gay smiling scene!
Where e'er thou deign'st a cheering ray,
With brighter lustre shines the day,
And fairer blooms the green.

From *thee* the social joys of life—
The tender joys of *child* and *wife*,
Acquire their softest charms.
With double bliss we view them still,
When sure no lordly tyrant's will
Can wrest them from our arms.

To *thee* pertains pure *truth* untaught,
Bold *elocution*, strength of thought,
And dignity of *mind*;
Unsullied *honour*, *public zeal*,
Devotion to our *country's weal*;
And *love* to all mankind.

For *thee* what battles have been won,
For *thee* what deathless deeds been done,
Let each past age proclaim.
For *thee* our fathers oft have bled!
Inspired by *thee* they hither fled;
To this new world they came!

These untrod regions to explore,
For *thee* they left their native shore,
Beneath thy favouring smile;
While, happy in thy gentle sway,
Thy presence cheered the gloomy way,
And recompensed their toil.

While here thy radiant *form* was seen,
The *arts* attendant hailed *thee* queen,
And strove at thy command:
They bade the cottage grace the plain,
And scattered round the golden grain,
To clothe the savage land.

Then pure *Religion* soon appeared,
Her peaceful *standard* mild she reared,
And shed her brightest ray.
Descending angels sung around;
Attentive *Science* caught the sound,
And joined the choral lay!

The *temple* rose, the *city* smiled,
The garden bloomed amid the wild,
And culture ruled the plain.
Bold *Commerce* spread her whitening sails;
Her streamers waved with breezy gales,
And danced along the main.

The circling year, as it went round,
Thy happy children always found
Of every good possessed.
While crowned with *industry* and *peace*,
Each year beheld our joys increase,
In thy protection blest.

But now, alas, how changed the scene!
What blasting horrors intervene
To cloud the cheerless day!
Around behold the gathering storm
With lowry brow the sky deform,
And intercept thy ray.

O deign once more, mild queen, to shine!
Vouchsafe again thy light divine,
To bless the coming year;
Let *Discord* cease her jarring strains;
Let *Peace* and *Mercy* glad these plains,
Our drooping hearts to cheer!

Bid *Britain's* better genius rise,
And teach her to be truly wise,
And leave her children free.
For her, content we'll turn the soil,
And fondly bear to her each toil,
If not bereft of thee!

But if resolved, determined still,
To bend us to her lordly will,
And tear *thee* from our arms,
She sends oppression's martial band,
To spread destruction o'er the land,
And rob us of thy charms,

From each rude blast thy form we'll shield,
Nor e'er thy countless blessings yield,
But with departing life!
With *patriot* zeal we'll tend thy fire;
And cheerful in thy cause expire,
Amidst the glorious strife!

Where e'er thou deign'st our steps to lead,
Through thickest foes we'll fearless tread,
Or pleased resign our breath.
For thee we'll conquer, or we'll die;
For thee we'll *pain* and want defy,
And grasp thee e'en in death!

SYLVIA.

Philadelphia, 1775.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

GOOD-NATURED WIT;

Addressed to a young female friend. By the young lady who wrote the preceding ODE.

To Miss Charlotte S****.

ACCEPT, dear girl, an artless muse
Who tunes to thee her lay;
Nor thou the humble gift refuse,
Which gratitude would pay.

Thanks, charming maid, for these gay hours
You taught to dance along,
While *wit* and *fancy* join'd their powers;
Our pleasure to prolong.

While *war* breath'd tempest all around,
'twas harmony within;
No clashing harsh internal sound
Re-echoed its thrill din.

How oft when *wit* like thine we find,
Keen *Satire* points the dart;
Which poisons more the more refin'd,
And festers in the heart!

Trembling at distance we admire
And dread its painful wound!
Nor mirth, nor joy its *shafts* inspire,
But scatter terrors round!

Justly we say such *wit* is like
The *diamond's* radiant rays;
Which sparkle most in act to strike,
And wound amidst the *blaze*.

But thine like yonder *potent sun*,
Which forms that *gem* refin'd,
Enlightens, *charms*, and *warms* in one,
Nor leaves a sting behind.

Still shall its pleasing influence cheer,
While *judgment* bounds the line;
While *mild good-nature* points its sphere,
And shows it where to shine.

Then let it, sprightly *Charlotte*, blaze,
In all its lustre bright;
To gild the gloom of these sad days
With innocent delight:

While gathering oft in circles gay
Around the social fire;
Thy *wit* shall charm our cares away,
And life and joy inspire.

Sweet smiling peace shall guard the *door*,
Within shall *friendship* reign:
Then let the hoiso murmur roar,
While we *that peace* maintain.

SYLVIA.

Philadelphia, 1776.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

Horace, Lib. IV, Carm. VII.—Translated by a youth in his fifteenth year; student in the Reverend Mr. Allison's Academy, Bordentown.

To Torquatus.

THE snow is gone, the winter's fled,
The fields with verdure are o'erspread,
And leaves the trees adorn.—
Earth her lost beauty now regains;
Each bank its fallen stream retains
And Neptune's forces scorn.

The graces and the nymphs now dare
To come abroad and take the air,
Or naked lead the dance.
The rolling year—each hour declares,
That cruel death no suppliant spares,
Nor e'er a pardon grants.

Mild zephyrs now dispel the cold,
Spring's changed to summer; when behold
The plenteous autumn come.

Then icy winter frowns again—
No more the farmer toils with pain,
But takes his rest at home.

Scarce the swift moon fills up her horns,
With silver radiance earth adorns,
When quick we must depart,
To the rich Tullus, Ancus good,
Æneas, born of Trojan blood—
O man, how frail thou art!

What mortal is there here on earth
Who's certain of to-morrow's birth—
How long the fates decree?
That wealth which you amass with care,
Will but enrich some greedy heir,
Nor long remain to thee.

When thou art gone and judgment come,
When Minos gives your final doom
For happiness or pain;
Then, O Torquatus, ancestry,
Nor grace of speech, nor piety,
Can e'er a ransom gain.

Diana's self, celestial maid!
Freed not Hippolitus from shade
Of everlasting night.
And Theseus tried his power in vain
To break Pirithous' Lethean chain,
And bring him back to light.

Bordentown, Feb. 1791.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

LINES *written on a blank-leaf of Dr. Young's* Night Thoughts; *and, with the book, presented to a gentleman by his wife, the night before he undertook a long voyage; January,* 1779.

IF e'er thy L***a to thy soul was near;
If e'er her sorrows claim'd one manly tear;
If e'er amidst her numerous errors you
One latent virtue fondly could pursue;
If e'er she pleased, if e'er her form appear'd
But one soft moment to thine eye endeared!
If e'er congenial transports warmed thy mind,
And fondly whisper'd that our souls were joined,
Peruse this book, with candour scan the *page*,
And shun the vices of a fallen age!
Here truths important— *heaven* and *hell* are shewn;
Life, *death*, *eternity*, are all made known;
In warmest colours to the mind of man,
The fleeting pleasure of this bounded span
Finely contrasted with that deathless day
Which joins our spirits, when we drop this clay!
So sang the *preacher*, so the poets feign,
As *swans* sing sweetest in their dying strain!
Sounds *mild*, *mellifluous*, *ardent*, *clear*, *divine*,
Breathe forth and radiate each seraphic line!
Whilst here I read, *earth* from my foot-step flies,
On angels' wings I'm wafted to the skies;
The heavenly host to fancy seem displayed,
And purest transports all my mind pervade:
All sublunary objects sink to view,
Fortune, *ambition*, nay, my Henry—you!
If right we weigh *time's* worth whilst here below,
If right we measure our last *weal* or woe,
We yet shall meet where neither joy nor pain
In ebbs or flows shall short admission gain!
One calm, perpetual, equal, happy round,
In these unfading mansions shall be found.
No *spring* to flatter—*summer* to mature,
No fruits *autumnal* plenty to ensure;
No snow—rolled fields to meliorate th' earth,
For *renovation* of *perennial* birth.
Death life succeeds in this imperfect state:
Not so when entered heaven's triumphant gate;
Then fixed duration shall enhance each joy,
And repetition there shall never cloy;
E'en *hope*, *bright hope*, although life's *cordial drop*,
Is no ingredient in the heavenly cup;
Though the grand softener of our sorrows here
She'll far be banished when we enter there,
Nor smiling cheat us with her partner *Fear*.
Although contrasted they are near allied,
And small partitions do their bounds divide,
Here *hope* and *fear* are ever in one train,
Linked to each other in life's motley *chain*.
Suspense their parent flings them *shade* and light,
Himself the offspring of bright *day* and *night*;
The parent's features stamped upon the child;

One moment fearful, of all joy beguiled,
The next all sanguine and disdaining fears,
Till the pale *twin* before his view appears,
Surrounded by his doubts, his glooms, and fears.
But full *fruition* shall such guests dismiss,
Guests too uncertain for abodes of bliss.
No parting there, or else no more be known,
All ties dissolved before *Emanuel's* throne,
That fount celestial lesser springs shall drown,
Each stream concentered in that stream profound.

Y. Z.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

AN ODE;

On the establishment of Sunday-Schools in Philadelphia.

WHEN first the Saviour at his birth
Angels announced from heaven to earth,
This was the musick of the sky,
"Peace be to man, and praise to God on high."

Each cherub caught the glowing strain;
Each seraph chanted it again;
And shepherds thus were heard to sing,
"Peace be to man, and praise to Israel's King."

Judea first the voice obey'd;
To *ONE* she homage always paid;
But to true christians 'tis allow'd alone,
To worship the Almighty *three* in *one*.

Hail, holy *Trinity!* to thee
I evermore shall, bend the knee.
And shall proclaim, e'en to remotest plains,
A FATHER, SON, and SPIRIT ever reigns.

CREATOR! to thy power I bend;
Thou art my father, and my friend.
Thou *God!* thou son of *God!*—thy suppliant hear!
As *God* I worship thee; as *man* revere.

Thou SPIRIT! with celestial fire
The erring sons of man inspire;
Till all shall own (and Truth the strains applaud)
Father, Son, Spirit—but one only GOD.

Ye stars! repeat it as ye rise;
Spread it, thou sun, through all the skies;
That education must our souls improve,
Guide us on earth, and lead to heavenly love.

And hark! the sacred sounds are heard!
The sabbath truly is rever'd;
On earth 'tis granted to the good and wise,
To bless mankind, and guide them to the skies.

Such benefactors claim my praise;
They guide our youth through virtue's ways.—
Ah! could I point them out a settled rule,
To form a well-establish'd *Sunday-School*.

Much is intended; much is done;
The rising and the setting sun
Shall shew, that they commence such worthy rules
As favour youth, by forming *Sunday-Schools*.

VERSES *on* APATHY.

UPON that clime where frost's eternal chain
Holds th' iron earth, and adamantine main;
And waste and winter ceaseless vigils keep,
While nature's power is lock'd in endless sleep;
A rocky hill its glist'ning summit rears,
Incrusted with the snows of thousand years;
Here, on the midway steep, a cavern yawns,
Upon whose gloom no morning ever dawns;
Whose winding sides the howling blasts assault,
While icicles depend from ev'ry vault.
This seat has heaven to apathy assigned:
The sluggish monster, on the rock reclined,
Scarce knows to move. Along her rigid veins
Life's current a laborious passage gains.
Sensation struggles through her nerves to rise,
And, at the head arriving, gasps and dies.
No spark of passion can her breast conceive,
With rage to kindle, or with grief to heave.
In torpor fixed, her eyes forget to roll,
And mark the petrefaction of her soul.

Her motive faculty alone revives
When within Cancer's bound the sun arrives;
Draws from the snowy heap the trickling rill;
And slowly makes the icicle distil:
Then, as if thawed, she takes her tardy way
T' extend o'er human hearts her torpid sway;
Those sluggish bosoms, in which never rise
The precious seeds that nature's hand supplies—
The seeds from which each soft affection grows,
Each generous passion, each result of those;
The tender bands which clinging round the soul,
Hold it in strong, yet lenient, control;
The glorious ardour which the heart inspires,
When public good impels, and honour fires—
These callous souls she seizes as her own,
And, like Medusa's head, transforms to stone.

To the KING *of* ENGLAND.

(Written November 11th, 1778.)

THE rain pours down — the city looks forlorn—
And *gloomy* subjects suit the howling morn.
Close by my fire, with doors and windows fast,
And sweetly sheltered from the driving blast,
To gayer thoughts, I bid a day's adieu,
To spend a scene of solitude with you.

So oft has black revenge engrossed the care
Of all the leisure hours man finds to spare;
So oft has guilt in all its thousand dens
Called forth the vengeance of chastising pens;
That when I fain would ease my heart on you,
No thought is left untold—no passion new.
From flight to flight the mental path appears
Worn with the steps of near six thousand years,
And filled throughout with every scene of pain,
From CAIN to GEORGE, and back from GEORGE to CAIN.

Alike in cruelty, alike in hate,
In guilt alike, and more alike in fate;
Both curs'd supremely (for the blood they drew)
Each from the rising world, while each was new.

Go, second Cain, true likeness of the first,
And strew thy blasted head with homely dust—
In ashes sit—in wretched sackcloth weep—
And with unpitied sorrows cease to sleep.
Go, haunt the tombs, and single out the place
Where earth itself shall suffer a disgrace.
Go, spell the letters on some mouldering urn,
And ask if he who sleeps there can return.
Go, count the numbers that in silence lie,
And learn by study what it is to die.

For sure that heart—if any heart you own—
Conceits that man expires without a groan;
That he who lives, receives from you a grace,
Or death is nothing but a change of place;
That peace is dull; that joy from sorrow springs,
And war's the royal saree-show of kings.

Else why these scenes that wound the feeling mind,
This sport of death—this cockpit of mankind.
Why sobs the widow in perpetual pain;
Why cries the orphan—"*Oh my father's slain!*"
Why hangs the sire his paralytic head,
And nods with manly grief—"*My son is dead.*"
Why shrieks the maiden, (robbed of ease and sense,)
"*He's gone—He's killed—Oh! Heavens, take me hence.*"
Why drops the tear from off the sister's cheek,
And sadly tells the sorrows she would speak.
Why lisps the infant on its mother's lap,
And looking round the parlour—"*Where is pap.*"
Why weeps the mother when the question's ask'd,
Kissing an answer as the easiest task;
Or why with lonely steps does pensive John
To all the neighbour's tell—"*Poor master's gone.*"

Oh! could I paint the passions I can feel,
Or point a horror that would wound like steel,
To thy unfeeling, unrelenting mind,
I'd send a torture and relieve mankind.

Thou, that art husband, father, brother, all
The tender names that kindred learn to call,
Yet like an image, carv'd in massy stone,
Thou bear'st the shape, but sentiment hast none;
Allied by dust and figure, not by mind,
Thou only herd'st, but liv'st not with mankind,
And prone to love like some outrageous ape
Thou know'st each class of beings by their shape.

Since then no hopes to civilize remain,
And all petitions have gone forth in vain,
One prayer is left, which dreads no proud reply,
That He *who made you breathe*, WOULD BID YOU DIE.

COMMON SENSE.
Philadelphia.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

A REBUS.

TWO sixths of a state where a fair one resides,
Two sevenths of an empire far-fam'd,
Where potent and warlike a monarch presides,
Two eighths of a tribe Indian nam'd.
To these add a term that we use to express
The noise of a favourite bird,
A short preposition, in latin, confess
That fair one I'll give you my word.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

A Paraphrase *on* Augur's Prayer.

Prov. xxx. 7, 8, *and* 9. *verses.*

TWO *things*, my God, my soul of thee demands,
And humbly begs them from thy heavenly hands;
O gracious Lord do not my suit deny;
But these desires indulge before I die.
Remove far from me vanity and lies,
And grant me needful *food* for life's supplies:
But let not riches warp my steady scale,
Nor poverty's keen blasts my mind assail.
Lest I be full, and say, who is the Lord?
By *wealth* forgetful of his sacred word,
Or lest black *want* with all his horrid train,
Tempt me to steal, or take God's name in vain.

LAURA.

EPITOME *of sundry* VIRTUES.

SAY, what is temp'rance? but the power to fight
And subjugate insurgent appetite.
What justice? but the faculty to rein
Ambition, envy, anger, love of gain.
What prudence? but the happy care to look,
Ere blind expectance take the baited hook.
What courage? but a parley held with fear,
Till evil it repel or learn to bear.
What piety? but gratitude and love
Exalted to perfection's source above.
What patriotism? but selfishness subdued,
And turn'd to wish and work a country's good.
What every virtue? but the power that bends
The noblest passion to the noblest ends.

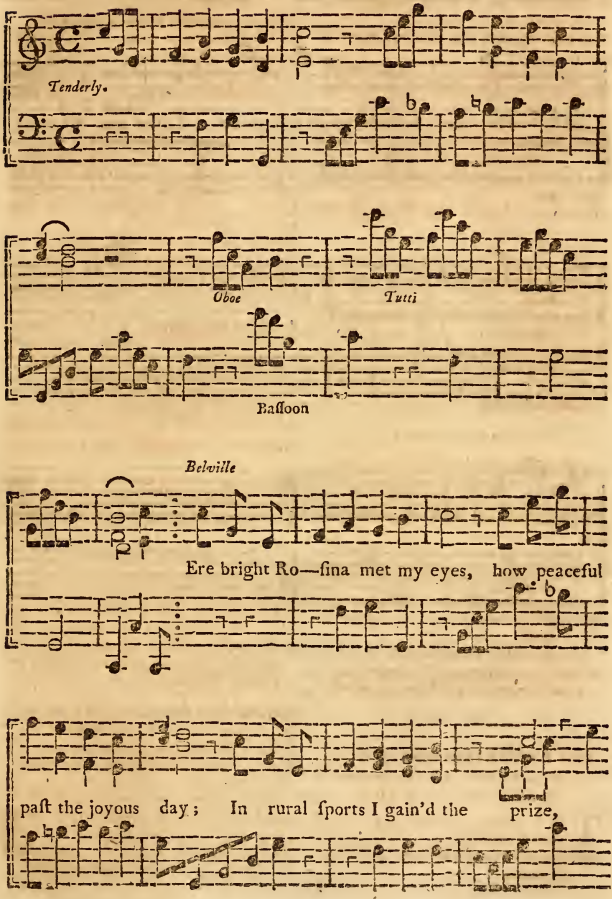
To Dr. Henry Moyes, upon learning that he had generously offered to deliver two lectures on philosophy in the College hall, for the benefit of a public dispensary, then about to be established, for the medical relief of the poor, in Philadelphia.

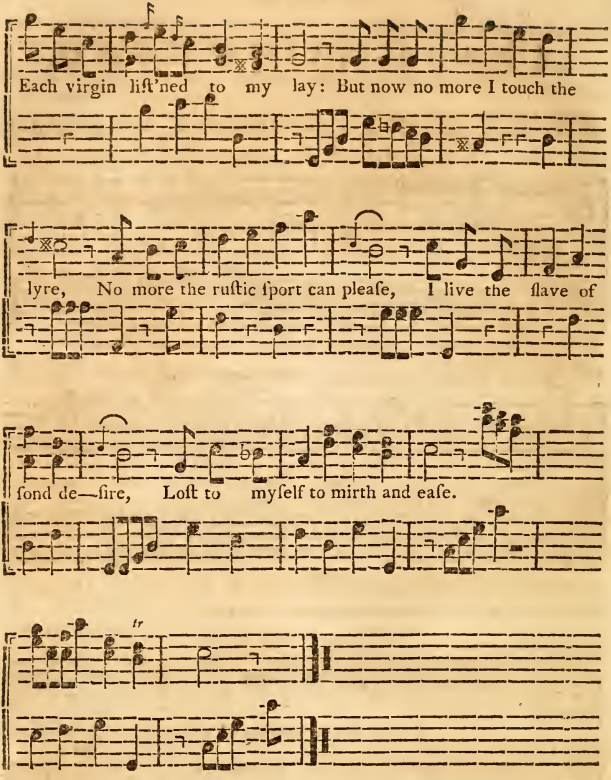
IN vain the earth's tremendous throes,
By steel conductors you oppose;*
Your work of charity and love,
Shall best the wrath of heaven remove.

* *The Doctor very ingeniously proposed, in one of his lectures, to defend cities from earthquakes, which he supposes are occasioned by electricity, by means of steel conductors placed in the earth, and conveyed round the cities.*

A FAVOURITE *SONG.*

SHIELD.





The tree which in a happier hour
Its boughs extended o'er the plain,
When blaſted by the lightning's power,
Nor charms the eye, nor ſhades the ſwain.

The tree which, &c.

The CHRONICLE.

SKETCH *of the Present* STATE *of the* AMERICAN NATION.

Population of the United States,

	Whites 3,300,000	*Blacks*,	700,000
* Representatives to the general government,			65
Number of souls to each representative,			61,538
Number of males between 16 and 60,			
	Whites, 825,000,	*Blacks*,	175,000,
Number of persons exempted from militia service, about			100,000
Number of fighting men, from 18 to 45, about			600,000

Gross amount of duties, impost, and taxes, collected in the year 1790.

For support of the general government, payment of foreign interest, and to create a sinking fund,	2,500,000
For support of the State governments,	1,500,000
	4,000,000

Each soul pays 1 dollar—Each male between 16 and 60, pays 4 dollars.

The amount to be collected in the present year will be greater, because provision must be made for paying the interest on the national debt.—The whole gross amount that will be necessary, may be computed at 6,000,000 dollars †—out of which the United States may have a sinking fund, which, in addition to the Western lands, may reduce the debt, in a period of time not very long, to a trifle. Each soul will then pay 1 ½ dollar. Each man, between 16 and 60, would pay 6 dollars; but when it is considered that the revenue of the United States is chiefly collected by duties on

* This number, in all probability, at the next general election, will be increased to one hundred.

† *Formed as follows, viz.*

For the general government,

Annual expences of government, about	800,000
To pay foreign and domestic interest, about	3,200,000
For a sinking fund, about	200,000
	4,000,000

For the state governments.

Annual expence of civil list in each state; interest on debts not assumed; improvements in inland navigation and roads; poor rates; city taxes; contributions to clergy, and public buildings,	2,000,000
	6,000,000

Which may be raised in the following manner, viz.

For the general government.

Impost, including the additional duties and tonnage,	3,200,000
Excise, or duty on rum and other spirits imported, or distilled within the United States,	800,000
	4,000,000

For the state governments.

Tax on carriages,
Tax on slaves,
Tax on horses, cattle, sheep, and other animals,
Tax on monies at interest,
Tax on professions and stock in trade,
Tax on houses and town lots,
Tax on land,
Tax on law proceedings,
Tax on collateral legacies.

And the states may devise many others, if some one or other of these do not suit their purpose. One advantage may arise from this divided mode of taxation, viz. an equalizing of the burthen of all the people of the State; for if the system of taxation adopted by the general government should fall partially on any description of persons, the state legislature may collect the necessary revenue for state purposes, from those on whom the general revenue does not fall.

conſumption, and that the rich conſume more than the poor, it is probable that the poorer claſs of citizens will not pay half a dollar a year.

The debt of the United States divides itſelf into foreign and domeſtic.

The foreign debt, the intereſt of which is payable in Europe, including the laſt 2,000,000 loan, may be computed at - - - 12,000,000

This part of the debt is liable to an augmentation, as there is power to borrow 12,000,000 to diſcharge arrearages of intereſt, and to effect ſome changes in the debt, beneficial to the Union.

The domeſtic debt may be as follows—on the idea of the whole being ſubſcribed—

6 per cents, bearing intereſt from 1ſt. January, 1791, about -	19,000,000
6 per cents, bearing intereſt from 1ſt. January, 1792,	10,000,000
	29,000,000
6 per cents, bearing intereſt from 1ſt January, 1801, - -	13,000,000
3 per cents, bearing intereſt from 1ſt. January, 1791, - -	14,000,000
3 per cents bearing intereſt from 1ſt. January, 1792, - -	7,000,000
	21,000,000

Intereſt to be provided in 1791

On foreign debt, with neceſſary charges,	- - -	600,000
Domeſtic debt,		
19,000,000	6 per cents. - - -	1,140,000
14,000,000	3 per cents. - - - -	420,000
		2,160,000

For 1792.

Foreign debt,	- - - -	600,000
29,000,000	6 per cents. - - - -	1,740,000
21,000,000	3 per cents. - - - - -	630,000

Total annual intereſt until 1801, - - - - 2,970,000

Some part of the domeſtic debt has been diſcharged in the courſe of the laſt year, perhaps as much as 300,000 dollars, the annual intereſt of which, and the intereſt on all other ſums which may be hereafter diſcharged, becomes an augmentation to the ſinking fund.

The whole debt of the United States is about - - - 75,000,000

What the debts due by the ſeveral States will be, after the aſſumption, is difficult to ſay, but at moſt cannot exceed - - - - - 10,000,000

85,000,000

The whole teritory of the United States is 1,000,000 ſquare miles.

That part which is granted to individuals, or which the United States, or particular States, have a right to grant, may be computed at about 500,000 ſquare miles, or 320,000,000 acres—which is 80 acres to each ſoul.

On the idea that the land is bound to pay the whole debt, every ſquare acre is mortgaged for about 14 cents; but if only that part which is already in the poſſeſſion of the United States and of the ſeveral States, be taken into view, then every ſquare acre will be mortgaged for about 28 cents, and admitting that every acre of land, on an average, is worth five dollars, it will then be pledged for one eighteenth part of its value.

If we look among the European governments for ſuch as are neareſt in extent to our own, we ſhall find France and Germany, together with Spain, nearly equal to our preſent territory in poſſeſſion; but when we contemplate the whole extent of our territory, we ſhall find it nearly equal to France, the Netherlands, Germany, Poland, Switzerland, Spain, Great-Britain, and Ireland, Italy, Portugal, and Turkey in Europe.

It is ſaid that the debt of Great-Britain is nearly equal to one half the value of the whole property of the people—whether in land, caſh, ſhips, ſtock on lands, produce, manufactures, plate, jewels, furniture, or the royal navy and impliments of war.

If we compute the value of the ſeveral heads as they reſpect the United States, perhaps the following may be nearly the truth, viz.

	Dollars
300,000,000 acres land, at 5 dollars on an average (including all the cities)	1,500,000,000
Cash of the United States,	10,000,000
Merchant ships of the United States, including coasters,	20,000,000
Stock on the lands, and necessary impliments of husbandry, boats, waggons, and geers,	5,000,000
Value of produce and manufactures exported and for home consumption,	65,000,000
Plate, Jewels, and furniture,	5,000,000
700,000 slaves may be valued at	75,000,000
	1,680,000,000

Besides which is the right of pre-emption to the land in possession of the Indians, and the vessels and warlike stores belonging to the United States and the several States.

Say the debt of the United States and the several States, foreign and domestic, is 85,000,000, then the proportion between the value of the whole property and the debt will be about twenty to one, and the ability of the people of the United States to pay their debt, is ten times greater than that of the people of Great-Britain.

CONGRESS of the UNITED STATES.

An ACT *to Incorporate the Subscribers to the* BANK *of the* UNITED STATES.

WHEREAS it is conceived that the establishment of a bank for the United States, upon a foundation sufficiently extensive to answer the purposes intended thereby, and at the same time upon the principles which afford adequate security for an upright and prudent administration thereof, will be very conducive to the successful conducting of the national finances; will tend to give facility to the obtaining of loans, for the use of the government, in sudden emergencies; and will be productive of considerable advantages to trade and industry in general; Therefore,

I. Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That a bank of the United States shall be established; the capital stock whereof shall not exceed ten millions of dollars, divided into twenty-five thousand shares, each share being four hundred dollars; and that subscriptions, towards constituting the said stock, shall, on the first Monday of April next, be opened at the city of Philadelphia, under the superintendance of such persons, not less than three, as shall be appointed for that purpose by the President of the United States (who is hereby empowered to appoint the said persons accordingly) which subscriptions shall continue open until the whole of the said stock shall have been subscribed.

II. And be it further enacted, That it shall be lawful for any person, co-partnership, or body politic, to subscribe for such or so many shares, as he, she, or they shall think fit, not exceeding one thousand, except as shall be hereafter directed relatively to the United States; and that the sums, respectively subscribed, except on behalf of the United States, shall be payable one fourth in gold and silver, and three fourths in that part of the public debt, which, according to the loan proposed in the fourth and fifteenth sections of the act, entitled, "An Act making provision for the debt of the United States," shall bear an accruing interest, at the time of payment, of six per centum per annum, and shall also be payable in four equal parts, in the aforesaid ratio of specie to debt, at the distance of six calendar months from each other; the first whereof shall be paid at the time of subscription

III. And be it further enacted, That all those who shall become subscribers to the said bank, their successors and assigns, shall be, and are hereby created and made a corporation and body politic, by the name and style of *The President, Directors and Company, of the Bank of the United States;* and shall so continue, until the 4th day of March one thousand eight hundred and eleven: And by that name, shall be, and are hereby made able and capable in law, to have, purchase, receive, possess, enjoy, and

retain to them and their ſucceſſors, lands, rents, tenements, hereditaments, goods, chattels and effects of what kind, nature or quality ſoever, to an amount, not exceeding in the whole fifteen millions of dollars, including the amount of the capital ſtock aforeſaid; and the ſame to ſell, grant, demiſe, aliene or diſpoſe of; to ſue and be ſued, plead and be impleaded, anſwer and be anſwered, defend and be defended, in courts of record, or any other place whatſoever: And alſo to make, have, and uſe a common ſeal, and the ſame to break, alter and renew, at their pleaſure; and alſo to ordain, eſtabliſh, and put in execution, ſuch bye-laws, ordinances and regulations, as ſhall ſeem neceſſary and convenient for the government of the ſaid corporation, not being contrary to law, or to the conſtitution thereof (for which purpoſe, general meetings of the ſtockholders ſhall and may be called by the directors, and in the manner herein after ſpecified) and generally to do and execute all and ſingular acts, matters and things, which to them it ſhall or may appertain to do; ſubject nevertheleſs to the rules, regulations, reſtrictions, limitations, and proviſions, hereafter preſcribed and declared.

IV. And be it further enacted, That, for the well ordering of the affairs of the ſaid corporation, there ſhall be twenty-five directors; of whom there ſhall be an election, on the firſt Monday of January in each year, by the ſtockholders or proprietors of the capital ſtock of the ſaid corporation, and by plurality of the votes actually given; and thoſe, who ſhall be duly choſen at any election, ſhall be capable of ſerving as directors, by virtue of ſuch choice, until the end or expiration of the Monday in January next enſuing the time of ſuch election, and no longer. And the ſaid directors, at their firſt meeting after each election, ſhall chooſe one of their number as Preſident.

V. Provided always, and be it further enacted, That, as ſoon as the ſum of four hundred thouſand dollars, in gold and ſilver, ſhall have been actually received on account of the ſubſcriptions to the ſaid ſtock, notice thereof ſhall be given, by the perſons under whoſe ſuperintendance the ſame ſhall have been made, in at leaſt two public gazettes printed in the city of Philadelphia; and the ſaid perſons ſhall, at the ſame time in like manner, notify a time and place within the ſaid city, at the diſtance of ninety days from the time of ſuch notification, for proceeding to the election of directors; and it ſhall be lawful for ſuch election to be then and there made; and the perſons, who ſhall then and there be choſen, ſhall be the firſt directors, and ſhall be capable of ſerving, by virtue of ſuch choice, until the end or expiration of the Monday in January next enſuing the time of making the ſame, and ſhall forthwith thereafter commence the operations of the ſaid bank, at the ſaid city of Philadelphia. And provided further, That, in caſe it ſhould at times happen, that an election of directors ſhould not be made upon any day when purſuant to this act it ought to have been made, the ſaid corporation ſhall not for that cauſe, be deemed to be diſſolved; but it ſhall be lawful, on any other day, to hold and make an election of directors, in ſuch manner as ſhall have been regulated by the laws and ordinances of the ſaid Corporation. And provided, laſtly, That, in caſe of the death, reſignation, abſence from the United States, or removal of a Director by the Stockholders, his place may be filled up, by a new choice, for the remainder of the year.

VI. And be it further enacted, That the Directors for the time being ſhall have power to appoint ſuch officers, clerks, and ſervants under them, as ſhall be neceſſary, for executing the buſineſs of the ſaid Corporation, and to allow them ſuch compenſation, for their ſervices reſpectively, as ſhall be reaſonable, and ſhall be capable of exerciſing ſuch other powers and authorities, for the well governing and ordering of the affairs of the ſaid Corporation, as ſhall be deſcribed, fixed, and determined by the laws, regulations, and ordinances of the ſame.

VII. And be it further enacted, That the following rules, reſtrictions, limitations, and proviſions, ſhall form and be fundamental articles of the Conſtitution of the ſaid Corporation, viz.

1. The number of votes, to which each ſtockholder ſhall be entitled, ſhall be according to the number of ſhares he ſhall hold, in the proportions following: That is to ſay, for one ſhare, and not more than two ſhares, one vote: For every two ſhares above two, and not exceeding ten, one vote: For every four ſhares above ten, and not exceeding thirty, one vote: For every ſix ſhares above thirty, and not exceeding ſixty, one vote: For every eight ſhares above ſixty, and not exceeding one hundred, one vote; And for every ten ſhares above one hundred, one vote:—But no perſon copartnerſhip, or body politic ſhall be entitled to a greater number than thirty votes.

And after the firſt election, no ſhare or ſhares ſhall confer a right of ſuffrage, which ſhall not have been holden three calendar months previous to the day of election. Stockholders actually reſident within the United States, and none other, may vote in elections by proxy.

2. Not more than three fourths of the Directors in office, excluſive of the Preſident, ſhall be eligible for the next ſucceeding year: But the Director, who ſhall be Preſident at the time of an election, may always be re-elected.

3. None but a Stockholder, being a citizen of the United States, ſhall be eligible as a Director.

4. No Director ſhall be entitled to any emolument, unleſs the ſame ſhall have been allowed by the Stockholders at a general meeting. The Stockholders ſhall make ſuch compenſation to the Preſident, for his extraordinary attendance at the bank, as ſhall appear to them reaſonable.

5. Not leſs than ſeven Directors ſhall conſtitute a board for the tranſaction of buſineſs, of whom the Preſident ſhall always be one, except in caſe of ſickneſs, or neceſſary abſence; in which caſe, his place may be ſupplied by any other director, whom he, by writing under his hand, ſhall nominate for the purpoſe.

6. Any number of Stockholders, not leſs than ſixty, who together ſhall be proprietors of two hundred ſhares or upwards, ſhall have power at any time to call a general meeting of the Stockholders, for purpoſes relative to the inſtitution, giving at leaſt ten weeks notice, in two public gazettes of the place where the bank is kept, and ſpecifying, in ſuch notice, the object or objects of ſuch meeting.

7. Every Caſhier or Treaſurer, before he enters upon the duties of his office, ſhall be required to give bond, with two or more ſureties, to the ſatisfaction of the Directors, in a ſum not leſs than fifty thouſand dollars, with condition for his good behaviour.

8. The lands, tenements, and hereditaments, which it ſhall be lawful for the ſaid Corporation to hold, ſhall be only ſuch, as ſhall be requiſite for its immediate accommodation in relation to the convenient tranſacting of its buſineſs, and ſuch as ſhall have been *bona fide* mortgaged to it by way of ſecurity, or conveyed to it in ſatisfaction of debts previouſly contracted in the courſe of its dealings, or purchaſed at ſales upon judgments which ſhall have been obtained for ſuch debts.

9. The total amount of the debts, which the ſaid Corporation ſhall at any time owe, whether by bond, bill, note, or other contract, ſhall not exceed the ſum of ten millions of dollars, over and above the monies then actually depoſited in the bank for ſafe keeping, unleſs the contracting of any greater debt ſhall have been previouſly authorized by a law of the United States. In caſe of exceſs, the directors, under whoſe adminiſtration it ſhall happen, ſhall be liable for the ſame, in their natural and private capacities: and an action of debt, may in ſuch caſe, be brought againſt them, or any of them, their or any of their heirs, executors or adminiſtrators, in any court of record of the United States, or of either of them, by any creditor or creditors of the ſaid corporation, and may be proſecuted to judgment and execution; any condition, covenant, or agreement to the contrary notwithſtanding. But this ſhall not be conſtrued to exempt the ſaid corporation, or the lands, tenements, goods or chattels of the ſame, from being alſo liable for, and chargeable with the ſaid exceſs. Such of the ſaid directors, who may have been abſent when the ſaid exceſs was contracted or created, or who may have diſſented from the reſolution or act whereby the ſame was ſo contracted or created, may reſpectively exonerate themſelves from being ſo liable, by forthwith giving notice of the fact, and of their abſence or diſſent, to the Preſident of the United States, and to the Stockholders, at a general meeting, which they ſhall have power to call for that purpoſe.

10. The ſaid corporation may ſell any part of the public debt whereof its ſtock ſhall be compoſed, but ſhall not be at liberty to purchaſe any public debt whatſoever; nor ſhall directly or indirectly deal or trade in any thing, except bills of exchange, gold or ſilver bullion, or in the ſale of goods really and truly pledged for money lent and not redeemed in due time; or of goods which ſhall be the produce of its lands. Neither ſhall the ſaid corporation take more than at the rate of ſix per centum per annum, for or upon its loans or diſcounts.

11. No loan ſhall be made by the ſaid corporation, for the uſe or on account of the government of the United States, to an amount exceeding one hundred thouſand dollars, or of any particular ſtate, to an amount exceeding fifty thouſand dollars, or of any foreign prince or ſtate, unleſs previouſly authorized by a law of the United States.

12. The ſtock of the ſaid corporation ſhall be aſſignable and transferable, according to ſuch rules as ſhall be inſtituted in that behalf, by the laws and ordinances of the ſame.

13. The bills obligatory and of credit, under the ſeal of the ſaid corporation, which ſhall be made to any perſon or perſons, ſhall be aſſignable by indorſement thereupon, under the hand or hands of ſuch perſon or perſons, and of his, her, or their aſſignee or aſſignees, and ſo as abſolutely to transfer and veſt the property thereof in each and every aſſignee or aſſignees ſucceſſively, and to enable ſuch aſſignee or aſſignees to bring and maintain an action thereupon in his, her, or their own name or names.—And bills or notes, which may be iſſued by order of the ſaid corporation, ſigned by the preſident, and counterſigned by the principal caſhier or treaſurer, promiſing the payment of money to any perſon or perſons, his, her, or their order, or to bearer, though not under the ſeal of the ſaid corporation, ſhall be binding and obligatory upon the ſame, in the like manner, and with the like force and effect, as upon any private perſon or perſons, if iſſued by him or them, in his, her, or their private or natural capacity or capacities; and ſhall be aſſignable and negociable, in like manner, as if they were ſo iſſued by ſuch private perſon or perſons,—That is to ſay, thoſe which ſhall be payable to any perſon or perſons, his, her, or their order, ſhall be aſſignable by indorſement, in like manner, and with the like effect, as foreign bills of exchange now are; and thoſe which are payable to bearer, ſhall be negociable and aſſignable by delivery only.

14. Half yearly dividends ſhall be made of ſo much of the profits of the bank, as ſhall appear to the directors adviſable; and once in every three years, the directors ſhall lay before the ſtockholders, at a general meeting, for their information, an exact and particular ſtatement of the debts, which ſhall have remained unpaid after the expiration of the original credit, for a period of treble the term of that credit; and of the ſurplus of profit, if any, after deducting loſſes and dividends. If there ſhall be a failure in the payment of any part of any ſum, ſubſcribed by any perſon, co-partnerſhip, or body politic, the party failing ſhall loſe the benefit of any dividend, which may have accrued, prior to the time for making ſuch payment, and during the delay of the ſame.

15. It ſhall be lawful for the directors aforeſaid, to eſtabliſh officers wherſoever they ſhall think fit, within the United States, for the purpoſes of diſcount and depoſit only, and upon the ſame terms, and in the ſame manner, as ſhall be practiſed at the bank; and to commit the management of the ſaid offices, and the making of the ſaid diſcounts, to ſuch perſons, and under ſuch agreements, and ſubject to ſuch regulations as they ſhall deem proper,—not being contrary to law, or to the conſtitution of the bank.

16. The officer, at the head of the treaſury department of the United States, ſhall be furniſhed, from time to time, as often as he may require, not exceeding once a week, with ſtatements of the amount of the capital ſtock of the ſaid corporation, and of the debts due to the ſame; of the monies depoſited therein; of the notes in circulation, and of the caſh in hand; and ſhall have a right to inſpect ſuch general accounts in the books of the bank, as ſhall relate to the ſaid ſtatements; Provided that this ſhall not be conſtrued to imply a right of inſpecting the account of any private individual or individuals with the bank.

VIII. And be it further enacted, That, if the ſaid Corporation or any perſon or perſons, for or to the uſe of the ſame, ſhall deal or trade in buying or ſelling any goods, wares, merchandiſe, or commodities whatſoever, contrary to the proviſions of this act, all and every perſon and perſons, by whom any order or direction for ſo dealing or trading ſhall have been given, and all and every perſon and perſons who ſhall have been concerned as parties or agents therein, ſhall forfeit and loſe treble the value of the goods, wares, merchandiſes, and commodities, in which ſuch dealing and trade ſhall have been; one half thereof to the uſe of the informer, and the other half thereof to the uſe of the United States, to be recovered with coſts of ſuit.

IX. And be it further enacted, That, if the ſaid corporation ſhall advance or lend any ſum, for the uſe or on account of the government of the United States, to an amount exceeding one hundred thouſand dollars; or of any particular ſtate to an amount exceeding fifty thouſand dollars; or of any foreign prince or ſtate, (unleſs previouſly authoriſed thereto by a law of the United States) all and every perſon and perſons, by and with whoſe order, agreement, conſent, approbation, or connivance, ſuch unlawful advance or loan, ſhall have been made, upon conviction thereof, ſhall forfeit and pay, for every ſuch offence, treble the value or amount of the ſum or ſums, which ſhall have been ſo unlawfully advanced or lent; one fifth thereof to the uſe of the informer, and the reſidue thereof to the uſe of the United States; to be diſpoſed of by law and not otherwiſe.

X. And be it further enacted, That the bills or notes of the ſaid Corporation, originally made payable, or which ſhall have become payable on demand, in gold and ſilver coin, ſhall be receivable in all payments to the United States.

XI. And be it further enacted, That it ſhall be lawful for the Preſident of the United States, at any time or times, within eighteen months after the firſt Day of April next, to cauſe a ſubſcription to be made to the ſtock of the ſaid Corporation, as part of the aforeſaid capital Stock of ten millions of dollars, on behalf of the United States, to an amount not exceeding Two Millions of Dollars; to be paid out of the monies which ſhall be borrowed by virtue of either of the acts, the one entitled, "An Act making proviſion for the debt of the United States;" and the other entitled, "An Act making proviſion for the reduction of the public debt;" borrowing of the Bank an equal ſum, to be applied to the purpoſes, for which the ſaid monies ſhall have been procured; reimburſable in ten years, by equal annual inſtalments; or at any time ſooner, or in any greater proportions, that the government may think fit.

XII. And be it further enacted, That no other Bank ſhall be eſtabliſhed by any future Law of the United States, during the continuance of the Corporation hereby created; for which the faith of the United States is hereby pledged.

Frederick Auguſtus Muhlenberg, Speaker of the Houſe of Repreſentatives.
John Adams Vice-Preſident of the United States, and Preſident of the Senate.

Approved February the 25th, 1791.
George Waſhington, Preſident of the United States.

Philadelphia Prices-Current,

FEBRUARY, 28, 1791.

Ashes, pot, p. ton,	35l.
Beef. Pen. and Jer. p. bbl.	45s.
Beef. Connecticut, do.	47s6.
Beef. Boston, (wmships)	55s.
Brandy, French, p. gal.	7s-8s4.
Bread, ship, per cwt.	19s6.
Beer. American, in bottles, per dozen	8s4
Beer. Ditto, per bbl.	30s.
Boards. Oak, p. m. feet,	67s6-85s.
Boards. Merchant. pine	95s.
Boards. Sap,	60s.
Boards. Cedar,	55-65s.
Chocolate, per lb.	1s-1s2.
Coffee, per. lb.	14-15d.
Flour. Superfine, p. bl.	42-44s.
Flour. Common,	39-41s.
Flour. Bur. mid. best,	37s6.
Flour. Middlings,	32s6.
Flour. Ship stuff, p. cwt.	15-16s.
Flax, per lb.	7½-9d.
Flaxseed, per bush.	5-5s9.
Ginseng, per lb.	2-2s4.
Gin, Holland, per gal.	5s9-6s.
Grain. Wheat, p. bush.	8s4-8s6.
Grain. Rye,	5s.
Grain. Oats,	2s6.
Grain. Indian corn,	3s6.
Grain. Barley,	4s9.
Grain. best shelled,	20s.
Grain. Buckwheat,	2s.
Hams, per lb.	6½d.
Hogs-lard,	8d.
Honey,	3½d-4d.
Hemp, per. ton,	50-56l.
Hops, per lb.	2s6.
Hogshead hoops, p. m.	5-6l.
Hides raw, per lb.	9½-10d.
Indigo, Fr. per lb.	7s6-12s.
Indigo, Carolina,	4s-6s6.
Iron. Cast, per cwt.	22s6-30s.
Iron. Bar, per ton,	29-30l.
Iron. Pig,	9-10l.
Iron. Sheet,	60-65l
Iron. Nail rods,	36l.
Meal, Indian, p. bbl.	19s.
Molasses, per gal.	2s10-3s.
Nails, 10, 12 & 20d.	9d.
Oil. Sper. strained, p. g.	3s7.
Oil. Whale com.	2s.
Oil. Do. Northern,	2s9.
Oil. Tanners p. bbl.	67s6.
Parchment, per doz.	30-37s6.
Porter, American,	10s6
Pork. Burlington,	65-67s6.
Pork. Lower Co.	57s6-60s.
Pork. Carolina,	55-60s.
Pease,	6-7s6
Rice, per cwt.	22s6-23s.
Rum. Jamaica per g.	5s3-5s6.
Rum. Windward,	4s4.
Rum. Antigua,	4s10.
Rum. Barbadoes,	3s9-4s.
Rum. Country,	3s2.
Rum. Taffia,	2s4.
Steel. German, p. cwt.	60-70s.
Steel. English, blistered,	80s.
Steel. Amer. p. ton,	40-60s.
Steel. Crowley's, p. fag.	85s.
Snake root, p. lb.	1s6-2s8
Soap, common,	4d-6d.
Soap, Castile,	9d.
Starch,	4d-6d.
Sugar. Lump, per lb.	15d.
Sugar. Loaf, sing. refin.	18d.
Sugar. Ditto, double ditto.	20d.
Sugar. Havannah, white,	9d.
Sugar. Ditto, brown,	8d.
Sugar. Musco. p. cwt.	65-80s.
Salt. Allum, p. bush.	2s.
Salt. Liverpool,	2s4
Salt. Cadiz,	2s3
Salt. Lisbon,	2s4
Tar. N. Jer. 24 g.	10s.
Tar. Carolina, 32 g.	15s.
Tar. Turpentine,	20s.
Tobacco, 100lb. F. R. new, best,	35-42s6
Tobacco, 100lb. Inferior,	28-30s.
Tobacco, 100lb. Old,	45-50s.
Tobacco, 100lb. Rappahan.	25-27s.
Tobacco, 100lb. Coloured Maryl.	35-40s.
Tobacco, 100lb. Dark,	25-28s.
Tobacco, 100lb. Long leaf,	25-28s.
Tobacco, 100lb. Eastern Shore,	18-25s.
Tobacco, 100lb. Carolina, new,	25-27s.
Tobacco, 100lb. Old,	35s.
Tea. Hyson, p. lb.	7s6-8s6.
Tea. Souchong,	4s1-6s8.
Tea. Congo,	3s9-5s6
Tea. Bohea,	2s6-2s7.
Wine. Mad. p. p.	40-75l.
Wine. Lisbon,	30l.
Wine. Teneriffe, p. g.	3s9.
Wine. Fayal, p. g.	3s4.
Wine. Port, per pipe,	30-35l.
Wine. Ditto, per gal.	5s10
Wine. Dit. per doz. bot.	28-30s.
Wine. Claret,	30-60s.
Wine. Sherry, p. gal.	7s6.
Wine. Malaga,	5s.
Wax, bees, per lb.	1s10½-2s.

Current Prices of PUBLIC SECURITIES.

Funded debt.	6 per Cents	17s3. per £.	or 86¼	per Cent.
Funded debt.	3 per Cents	9s. ——9s2.	or 46	do.
Funded debt.	Defered 6 per Cents	9s2.	46	do.
Unfunded do.	Final Settl. and other Certificates	15s9.——16s.	80	do.
Unfunded do.	Indents	9s. ——9s2.	46	do.
Unfunded do.	State debts	12s6.	62½	do.

COURSE of EXCHANGE.

Bills of Exchange, London,	90 days,	69—70.	
Ditto,	60 days,	70—72½.	
Ditto	30 days,	74.	
Amsterdam,	60 days, per guilder,		3s.
	30 days,		3s1
France,	60 days, per 5 livres,		6s8
	30 days,		6s8

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of JANUARY, 1791.

Days.	Barom. Eng. foot. In.	Therm. Farenh. D.	Therm. Reaum. D.	Anemometer Prevail Wind	rain	thunder	storm	WEATHER.
1	30 1 2	18 7	5 9	NW				Cloudy
	30 2 3	25 7	2 8	WNW				Idem
2	30 5 2	8 1	10 6	W				Fair
	30 5 13	30 4	0 7	WSW				Idem
3	30 6 9	12 0	8 9	W				Cloudy
	30 5 6	36 5	2	SSW				Idem
4	30 2 0	35 1	1 4	SW				Idem
	30 0 8	39 6	3 4	SW				Idem
5	30 0 4	37 6	2 5	SW				Cloudy, fog,
	29 11 7	43 2	5 0	SSW				Idem, Idem
6	29 10 13	42 6	4 7	SSW				Cloudy
	29 11 6	50 4	8 2	WSW				Idem
7	29 10 9	42 6	4 7	W				Cloudy fog
	29 10	55 6	10 5	SW				Idem, Idem
8	30 4 0	38 5	2 9	NW				Idem, Idem
	30 4 15	35 4	1 5	NW				Idem, Idem
9	30 5 9	23 9	3 6	NE				Sleet
	30 4 3	26 8	2 3	NE				Cloudy
10	30 0 13	36 5	0 2	SW				Idem
	30 1 6	42 1	4 5	WSW				Fair
11	30 4 15	25 9	2 7	WNW				Idem
	30 5 9	28 6	1 5	NW				Idem
12	30 3 13	16 5	6 9	WSW				Idem
	30 2 0	33 6	0 7	WSW				Cloudy
13	29 8 4	30 4	0 7	SW				Fair
	29 6 2	47 3	6 8	SW				Idem
14	30 0 10	34 9	1 3	SW				Idem
	29 11 11	52 7	9 2	SSW				Idem
15	29 10 5	40 5	3 8	SW				Cloudy, fog
	29 10 3	47 1	6 7	SW	1			Rain
16	29 11 0	38 7	3 0	NNE				Cloudy, fog
	29 10 7	45 5	6 0	NNE			1	Idem, Idem, storm
17	29 2 5	32 0	0 0	NNW			1	Snow, hail
	29 4 13	36 5	2 0	W				Cloudy,
18	29 9 3	27 7	1 9	SSW				Fair
	29 9 7	37 8	2 6	W				Idem
19	30 1 5	19 8	5 4	W				Idem
	30 1 9	28 8	1 4	W				Cloudy
20	30 3 3	21 9	4 5	W				Fair
	30 2 13	38 5	2 9	W				Idem
21	30 1 10	15 6	7 3	WSW				Idem
	29 10 9	47 1	6 7	WSW				Idem
22	30 0 8	24 8	3 2	NW				Idem
	30 1 12	26 1	2 6	NNW				Idem
23	30 2 13	19 2	5 7	SSW				Idem
	30 1 14	33 8	0 8	SSW				Cloudy
24	30 5 6	20 1	5 3	NE				Fair
	30 5 8	39 4	3 3	NE				Idem
25	30 4 11	36 5	2 0	SSE				Cloudy, fog
	30 3 0	50 0	8 0	SSE	1			Small rain
26	29 11 14	35 4	1 5	WSW				Cloudy, fog
	29 10 9	52 2	9 0	SW				Fair
27	29 11 0	30 2	0 8	W				Idem
	29 10 15	45 3	5 9	W				Cloudy
28	29 11 8	30 6	0 6	NW				Idem
	30 0 0	33 6	0 7	NW				Idem,
29	30 3 4	15 1	7 5	NW				Fair
	30 2 3	33 3	0 6	SW				Idem
30	29 9 10	36 0	1 8	WNW				Cloudy
	29 8 4	43 2	5 0	WNW				Idem
31	30 3 6	19 4	5 6	WNW				Fair
	30 4 7	29 1	1 3	WNW				Idem

RESULT.																		
	30 [illegible] etc.			7th gr. qc. of heat														
	30	6	9	55	6	10	5											
	17th leaf tel.			2d leaf de. of heat														
	29	2	5	8	1	10	6	0	NW									
	Variation			Variation														
	1	4	4	47	5	21	1											
	Mean eleva.			Temperature														
	1	29	17	1	33	5	0	7										

THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR MARCH 1791.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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To which are PREFIXED *the Philadelphia* PRICES-CURRENT, *and* COURSE *of* EXCHANGE.

PHILADELPHIA:

PRINTED, FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, N°. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

Philadelphia Prices-Current,

MARCH, 31, 1791.

	Ashes, pot, p. ton,	37l-10s-40l.	
Beef.	*Pen. and Jer. p. bbl.*	55s.	
	Connecticut, do.	47s6.	
	Boston, (navships)	55s.	
	Brandy, French, p. gal.	8/6-9.	
	Bread, ship, per cwt.	17s-18/6.	
Beer	*American, in bottles, per dozen*	10/6	
	Ditto, per bbl.	35-40s.	
Boards	*Oak, p. m. feet,*	90-98s.	
	Merchant. pine	90-95s.	
	Sap,	50s.	
	Cedar,	80-90s.	
	Chocolate, per lb.	1s.	
	Coffee, per. lb.	14d.	
Flour.	*Superfine, p. bl.*	38/6.	
	Common,	36/6.	
	Bur. mid. best,	32/6-34s.	
	Middlings,	26-27s.	
	Ship stuff, p. cwt.	9-12s.	
	Flax, per lb.	9d.	
	Flaxseed, per bush.	5s.	
	Ginseng, per lb.	2 2.	
	Gin, Holland, per gal.	6s.	
Grain	*Wheat, p. bush.*	7/3-7/6.	
	Rye,	5s.	
	Oats,	2s.	
	Indian corn,	2/8.	
	Barley,	4/6-4/9.	
	best shelled,	20s.	
	Buckwheat,	2/6	
	Hams, per lb.	6½d.	
	Hogs-lard,	7½d.	
	Honey,	4d.	
	Hemp, per. ton,	50-56l	
	Hops, per lb.	2/3-2/6.	
	Hogshead hoops, p. m.	5-6l.	

Hides raw, per lb.	9d-10d.	
Indigo, Fr. per lb.	9-10s.	
Carolina,	3-7s.	
Iron. *Cast, per cwt.*	26-28s.	
Bar, per ton,	30l.	
Pig,	9l5s-10l.	
Sheet,	65l.	
Nail rods,	36l.	
Meal, Indian, p. bbl.	17s.	
Molasses, per gal.	2/7-2/9.	
Nails, 10, 12 & 20d.	9-9d.	
Oil. *Sper. strained, p. g.*	3/7.	
Whale com.	2s.	
Do. Northern,	2/9.	
Tanners p. bbl.	67/6.	
Parchment, per doz.	37/6-45.	
Porter, American,	11/6-12s	
Pork. *Burlington,*	77/6.	
Lower Co.	72/6.	
Carolina,	60s.	
Pease,	7/6	
Rice, per cwt.	22/6.	
Rum. *Jamaica per g.*	5/3-5/6.	
Windward,	4/4.	
Antigua,	5s.	
Barbadoes,	3/9-4s.	
Country,	3/3.	
Taffia,	2/4-2/6.	
Steel. *German, p. cwt.*	60-70s.	
English, blistered,	80s.	
Amer. p. ton,	40-60s.	
Crowley's, p. fag.	85s.	
Snake root, p. lb.	1/6-2/8	
Soap, common,	4d-6d.	
Castile,	9d.	
Starch,	4d-6d.	

Sugar. *Lump, per lb.*	16d.	
Loaf, sing. refin.	17½d.	
Ditto, double ditto.	22½d.	
Havannah, white,	8½d.	
Ditto, brown,	8d.	
Musco. p. cwt.	60/6-78s.	
Salt. *Allum, p. bush.*	2s.	
Liverpool,	2/2	
Cadiz,	1/10½	
Lisbon,	2/2	
Tar *N. Jer. 24 g.*	9s.	
Carolina, 32g.	10-12s.	
Turpentine,	20s.	
Tobacco, 100lb. *J. R. new, best,*	28-30s.	
Inferior,	22/6-25s.	
Old,	35-37/6.	
Rappahan.	22/6-25s.	
Coloured Maryl.	40-60s.	
Dark,	18/9-20s.	
Long leaf,	18/9-20s.	
Eastern Shore,	15-16/9.	
Carolina, new,	22/6-25s	
Old,	28-30s.	
Tea. *Hyson, p. lb.*	7s-8/9.	
Souchong,	3/9-7s.	
Congo,	3-3/9	
Bohea,	2/5-2/6.	
Wine. *Mad. p. p.*	40-75l.	
Lisbon,	36l-37l10s.	
Teneriffe, p. g.	3/9.	
Fayal, p. g.	3s.	
Port, per pipe,	40-42l10s	
Ditto, per gal.	7s.	
Dit. per doz. bot.	30s.	
Claret,	30-45s.	
Sherry, p. gal.	6/9.	
Malaga,	5-6s.	
Wax, bees, per lb.	1/10½-2s.	

Current Prices of PUBLIC SECURITIES.

Funded debt.	*6 per Cents*	17s ——— 17s2.	*per £.*	*or* 86¼	*per Cent.*
	3 per Cents	9s.		*or* 46	*do.*
	Defered 6 per Cents	8/11 ——— 9s.		46	*do.*
Unfunded do.	*Final Settl. and other Certificates*	15/8		80	*do.*
	Indents	9s.		46	*do.*
	State debts	12s3 ——— 15s.		62½	*do.*

COURSE *of* EXCHANGE.

Bills of Exchange,	*London,*	90 *days,* 71.	*Amsterdam,*	60 *days, per guilder,*	2/11-3s.
Ditto,		60 *days,* 71½.		30 *days,*	3/1
Ditto		30 *days,* 72.	*France,*	60 *days, per 5 livres,*	7/2
				30 *days,*	7/3

THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR MARCH, 1791.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

HISTORY *of the* LIFE *and* CHARACTER *of* BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, L. L. D. *&c. &c. &c.*

(Continued from page 70.)

ALTHOUGH Dr. Franklin was now principally occupied with political purſuits, he found time for philoſophical ſtudies. He extended his electrical reſearches, and made a variety of experiments, particularly on the tourmalin. The ſingular properties which this ſtone poſſeſſes of being electrified on one ſide poſitively and on the other negatively, by heat alone, without friction, had been but lately obſerved.

Some experiments on the cold produced by evaporation, made by Dr. Cullen, had been communicated to Dr. Franklin, by Profeſſor Simpſon of Glaſgow. Theſe he repeated, and found, that, by the evaporation of ether in the exhauſted receiver of an air-pump, ſo great a degree of cold was produced in a ſummer's day, that water was converted into ice. This diſcovery he applied to the ſolution of a number of phenomena, particularly a ſingular fact, which philoſophers had endeavoured in vain to account for, viz. that the temperature of the human body, when in health, never exceeds 96 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, although the atmoſphere which ſurrounds it may be heated to a much greater degree. This he attributed to the increaſed perſpiration, and conſequent evaporation, produced by the heat.

In a letter to Mr. Small of London, dated in May 1760, Dr. Franklin makes a number of obſervations, tending to ſhew that in North America, north eaſt ſtorms begin in the ſouthweſt parts. It appears, from actual obſervation, that a north eaſt ſtorm, which extended a conſiderable diſtance, commenced in Philadelphia nearly four hours before it was felt in Boſton. He endeavoured to account for this, by ſuppoſing that, from heat, ſome great rarefaction takes

place about the Gulf of Mexico, that the air further north being cooler rushes in, and is succeeded by the cooler and denser air still further north, and that thus a continued current is at length produced.

The tone produced by rubbing the brim of a drinking glass with a wet finger had been generally known. A Mr. Puckeridge, an Irishman, by placing on a table a number of glasses of different sizes, and tuning them by partly filling them with water, endeavoured to form an instrument, capable of playing tunes. He was prevented by an untimely end, from bringing his invention to any degree of perfection. After his death some improvements were made upon his plan. The sweetness of the tones induced Dr. Franklin to make a variety of experiments; and he at length formed that elegant instrument, which he has called the *Armonica*.

In the summer of 1762 he returned to America. On his passage, he observed the singular effect produced by the agitation of a vessel, containing oil floating on water. The surface of the oil remains smooth and undisturbed, whilst the water is agitated with the utmost commotion. No satisfactory explanation of this appearance has, we believe, ever been given.

Dr. Franklin received the thanks of the Assembly of Pennsylvania, "as well for the faithful discharge of his duty, to that province in particular, as for the many and important services done to America in general, during his residence in Great Britain." A compensation of £5000 Pennsylvania currency was also decreed him for his services during six years.

During his absence he had been annually elected member of the Assembly. On his return to Pennsylvania he again took his seat in this body, and continued a steady defender of the liberties of the people.

In December 1762, a circumstance which caused great alarm in the province, took place. A number of Indians had resided in the county of Lancaster, and conducted themselves uniformly, as friends to the white inhabitants. Repeated depredations on the frontiers had exasperated the inhabitants to such a degree, that they determined on revenge upon every Indian. A number of persons, to the amount of about 120, principally inhabitants of Donnegal and Peckstang or Paxton townships; in the county of York, assembled; and, mounted on horseback, proceeded to the settlement of these harmless and defenceless Indians, whose number had now been reduced to about twenty. The Indians received intelligence of the attack which was intended against them, but disbelieved it. Considering the white people as their friends, they apprehended no danger from them. When the party arrived at the Indian settlement, they found only some women and children, and a few old men, the rest being absent at work. They murdered all whom they found, and amongst others the chief Shahaes, who had been always distinguished for his friendship to the whites. This bloody deed excited much indignation in the well disposed part of the community.

The remainder of these unfortunate Indians, who, by absence, had escaped the massacre, were conducted to Lancaster, and lodged in the jail as a place of security. The Governor issued a proclamation ex-

preſſing the ſtrongeſt diſapprobation of the action, offering a reward for the diſcovery of the perpetators of the deed, and prohibiting all injuries to the peaceable Indians in future. But, notwithſtanding this, a party of the ſame men ſhortly after marched to Lancaſter, broke open the jail, and inhumanly butchered the innocent Indians who had been placed there for ſecurity. Another proclamation was iſſued, but it had no effect. A detachment marched down to Philadelphia, for the expreſs purpoſe of murdering ſome friendly Indians, who had been removed to the city for ſafety. A number of the citizens armed in their defence. The Quakers, whoſe principles are oppoſed to fighting, even in their own defence, were moſt active upon this occaſion. The rioters came to Germantown. The governor fled for ſafety to the houſe of Dr. Franklin, who, with ſome others, advanced to meet the Paxton boys, as they were called, and had influence enough to prevail upon them to relinquiſh their undertaking, and return to their homes.

The diſputes between the Proprietaries and the Aſſembly, which, for a time, had ſubſided, were again revived. The Proprietaries were diſſatisfied with the conceſſions made in favour of the people, and made great ſtruggles to recover the privilege of exempting their eſtates from taxation, which they had been induced to give up.

In 1763 the Aſſembly paſſed a militia bill, to which the governor refuſed to give his aſſent, unleſs the Aſſembly would agree to certain amendments which he propoſed. Theſe conſiſted in increaſing the fines, and, in ſome caſes, ſubſtituting death for fines. He wiſhed too that the officers ſhould be appointed altogether by himſelf, and not be nominated by the people, as the bill had propoſed. Theſe amendments the aſſembly conſidered as inconſiſtent with the ſpirit of liberty. They would not adopt them, the governor was obſtinate, and the bill was loſt.

Theſe, and various other circumſtances, encreaſed the uneaſineſs which ſubſiſted between the Proprietaries and the Aſſembly, to ſuch a degree, that, in 1764, a petition to the king was agreed to by the houſe, praying an alteration from a *Proprietary* to a *Regal* government. Great oppoſition was made to this meaſure, not only in the houſe but in the public prints. A ſpeech of Mr. Dickenſon, on the ſubject, was publiſhed, with a preface by Dr. Smith, in which great pains were taken to ſhew the impropriety and impolicy of this proceeding. A ſpeech of Mr. Galloway, in reply to Mr. Dickenſon, was publiſhed, accompanied with a preface by Dr. Franklin, in which he ably oppoſed the principles laid down in the preface to Mr. Dickenſon's ſpeech. This application to the throne produced no effect. The proprietary government was ſtill continued.

At the election for a new Aſſembly, in the fall of 1764, the friends of the proprietaries made great exertions to exclude thoſe of the adverſe party, and they obtained a ſmall majority in the city of Philadelphia. Franklin now loſt his ſeat in the houſe, which he had held for fourteen years. On the meeting of the Aſſembly, it appeared that there was ſtill a decided majority of Franklin's friends. He was immediately appointed provincial agent, to the great chagrin of his enemies, who made a ſolemn proteſt againſt his appointment, which

was refused admission upon the minutes, as being unprecedented. It was, however, published in the papers, and produced a spirited reply from him, just before his departure for England.

(To be continued.)

TRANSLATED FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

EXTRACTS *from the correspondence of the present* KING *of* SWEDEN, *when a young man, with the superintendents of his education.*

Count Scheffer to his Royal Highness.

MODESTY, my prince, is a virtue so graceful, and yet so rare, that for the honour of human nature we ought to collect, nay, engrave on brass, and sculp in marble, the monuments which prove that she yet exists, and which, in the case of her total extinction, might prove to posterity, that she once existed. I have lately been informed of an example of this virtue that well merits your notice.* —Field-marshal Daun offered to one of his general officers, the command of a select corps destined for an important expedition. This general desired to be excused from this honourable distinction, candidly declaring, that he thought himself unworthy of it: that he could promise a faithful discharge of duty on whatever occasion, and in whatever danger, provided he was placed in a subordinate station; but that a supreme command was beyond his abilities. The marshal, struck with admiration of this noble diffidence, thought, very judiciously, that a person who possessed such a self-command, was also capable of executing the intended trust; and therefore did not scruple to give him positive orders for the purpose: assuring him at the same time of prompt assistance in case of need. The event proved that the marshal was right; the general having acquitted himself with honour, and shown that his modesty was not a consciousness of ignorance, but a delicate sense of duty.

This, my prince, will no doubt suggest to your reflection, that modesty, though not generally numbered among the civil virtues, is yet one of the most essential to the public good. If it were more general, we should see many renounce public employments which they so eagerly pursue, and so badly administer. Princes who dispose of these offices, would also be diffident of their own judgment, and consult the best counsellors in a choice so important to the State. When Lewis the XIV. would place Chamillon at the head of the department of war, and was told that this minister, though otherwise a man of merit, was not qualified for this place, this proud monarch replied, *I will qualify him;* and in this conceit he chose a man who spoiled his affairs, and whom he was at last obliged to displace, after an experience ruinous to France. We cannot, therefore, too warmly recommend mo-

* This was written in 1759.

deſty; to individuals in general, that they may be the more agreeable in ſocial life; to men that run the career of ambition, that they may not diſhonour themſelves in employs for which they have no talents; and to the rulers of the world, that they may not depend too much on their own light, eſpecially in chooſing perſons of whom they cannot have a competent knowledge.

Anſwer from the Prince.

I PERFECTLY agree with you, on the beauty and utility of modeſty. The general whom you mention, acted in a manner very laudable. But, give me leave to aſk, whether a young officer, whoſe character is not yet eſtabliſhed, would not hazard too much by ſuch a refuſal of a poſt of honour? whether he might not thereby incur the ſuſpicion of cowardice? It is true, even ſuch unmerited diſgrace he ought to bear from principles of honour and conſcience; but can we expect ſo much from the weakneſs of human nature?

The Count's reply.

I CANNOT ſee, why a young officer ſhould ſuffer in his reputation, by his modeſt refuſal of a ſuperior command, when he offers his ſervices in any trial, under the conduct of another, as the Auſtrian general did. Military ſervice requires bravery, but it alſo demands genius and experience. He that refuſes to ſerve, may be deemed a coward; but to decline a high ſtation can proceed only from amiable modeſty.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

ACCOUNT *of the* MANUFACTORIES *of* COTTON *and* WOOL CARDS, *in the City of* PHILADELPHIA.

THERE are few manufactories ſo completely eſtabliſhed in the United States as that of cotton and wool cards. Notwithſtanding the difficulties to which the high price of labour, and the neceſſity of importing the wire gave riſe; yet the mechanical ingenuity and laudable exertions of our artiſts have gradually ſurmounted thoſe obſtacles, and the cotton and wool cards, made in the United States, are now ſo much ſuperior to any that could be imported, and can be ſold ſo much cheaper, that the importation of this article has entirely ceaſed. Conſiderable improvements have been made in the machines uſed for cutting the teeth; and, in this way, the expence of labour has been greatly diminiſhed.

It were to be wiſhed that an accurate account of the preſent flouriſhing ſtate of the card-manufactories, in different parts of the United States, could be obtained. In Boſton, New-York, and Philadelphia they are extenſive. It is probable that the number manufactured in Philadelphia is about half that of Boſton and double that of New-York. It is computed that not leſs than *twelve dozens* of pairs are made

daily, in th ee manufactories in Philadelphia, one carried on by the meſſrs Sellers, another by meſſrs Weſtcott and Adgate, and the third by Mr. Perkins. Beſides theſe, there are others in the city and its vicinity, reſpecting which I am not ſo well informed; but, I have reaſon to think that they manufacture at leaſt *four dozens* of pairs daily, making in all *ſixteen* dozens per day, or 4992 dozens annually. Theſe are ſold at various prices, from four to eight dollars per doz.; but, they will ſcarcely average more than forty ſhillings or five dollars and one third *per doz.* as a greater part of them are ſold under that price. Admitting this to be the true average price, the groſs amount will be 26.624 dollars; from which deduct one dollar per dozen, for the wire, which is pretty near the average coſt of this article, and there will be a net produce of 21.632 dollars, ariſing entirely from the manufacture of American materials. It is to be regretted that ſo valuable a branch of manufacture cannot be ſupplied with wire, in any other way than by importing it from abroad.

There is, moreover, a very important advantage derived to the community from this manufacture, excluſive of the money which it retains in the country. It gives employment to a number of poor children, who, inſtead of being a public burthen, as doubtleſs many of them would otherwiſe be, or of being ſuffered to grow up in habits of indolence and vice, are made to contribute to the wealth of the State, and are early habituated to induſtry; the beſt foundation for rendering them uſeful, through life, both to themſelves and their country. The teeth are generally ſet by children of this deſcription, ſome of whom are not more than eight years old; and a gentleman, of conſiderable experience in the buſineſs, informs me, that for this they receive, upon an average, two ſhillings and ſix pence per doz. This allowance upon 4992 dozens, the number ſuppoſed to be manufactured annually in Philadelphia and its vicinity, makes 1664 dollars, which afford a conſiderable relief to the poor perſons thus employed; and are ſo much added to the wealth of the nation.

A friend to American Manufactures.

Philad. 15th *March*, 1791.

LUDICROUS SIMILE.

By Mr. Burke.

If a member of the French national aſſembly acts improperly at the end of his two years leaſe, it does not concern him for two years more. By the new French conſtitution, the beſt and the wiſeſt repreſentatives go equally with the worſt into this *Limbus Patrum*. Their bottoms are ſuppoſed foul, and they muſt go into dock to be refitted. Every man who has ſerved in an aſſembly is ineligible for two years after. Juſt as theſe magiſtrates begin to know their trade, like chimney-ſweepers, they are diſqualified for exerciſing it.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

EXTRACT *from the* Hon. JUDGE WILSON'S *concluding Lecture, on the* Nature *and* Principles *of* MUNICIPAL LAW *and* LEGISLATIVE AUTHORITY.

I HOPE I have now performed my engagement: I hope I have evinced, from authority and from reason, that CONSENT is the *sole* obligatory principle of human government and human laws. To trace the varying but powerful energies of this animating principle, through the formation and administration of every part of our beautiful system of law and government, will be my pleasing task, in the course of these lectures. Can any task be more delightful, than to pursue the circulation of liberty through every limb and member of the political body? This kind of *anatomy* has a peculiar advantage: It traces, without *destroying*, the principle of life.

Before I conclude, it will be proper to take a concise view of the *consequences* necessarily resulting from the doctrine, that the legislative power must be "absolute, uncontrolled, and supreme."

1. The power which makes the laws, cannot be accountable for its conduct: It cannot be submitted either to human *judgment*, or to human *punishment*; for *both* these, says Puffendorff, suppose a *superior*; but a superior to the supreme, in the same order of men, and the same notion of government, is a contradiction.

2. If to every human law a *superior* is necessary; and if the power, which makes a human law, must be *supreme*; the consequence unquestionably is, that that power cannot be bound by the laws which it makes: For where shall we find a superior to that, which is supreme? "When a civil power, says Puffendorff, is constituted *supreme*, it must, on this very score, be supposed exempt from human laws, or, to speak more properly, *above* them. Human laws are nothing else but the desires of the supreme power, concerning matters to be observed by the subjects, for the public good of the State. That no such edicts can directly oblige the *sovereign* is manifest; because his very *name* or *title* supposeth that no bond or engagement can be laid on him by any *other* mortal hand: And for a person to oblige *himself*, under the notion of a lawgiver or a superior, is an impossibility."

3. If the legislative power be absolute, uncontrolled, and supreme, all opposition to its acts must be unlawful. This, indeed, is not so much a *consequence* as a *part* of the doctrine. In the language of the Commentaries, this power is "irresistible."

Many recollect the numerous and the extravagant inferences, which, at a former period, were drawn from the supposed absolute, irresistable, uncontrolled, and supreme power of the British Parliament. They will fall under our notice, when we come to examine the principles, the rise, and the progress of the American constitutions and governments.

I have already mentioned, that, though Sir William Blackstone was the *first*, he has not been the *last*, who defined municipal law, as

applied to the law of England, upon unſound and dangerous principles. His doctrine has been adopted, though with ſome apparent degree of heſitation, by his ſucceſſor in the *Vinerian* chair. "Every State muſt, like individuals, be ſubject to certain rules. The neceſſity of rules infers the neceſſity of *political ſuperiors*. The giving of laws to a people forms the moſt exalted degree of human ſovereignty; and is, *perhaps*, in *effect*, or in ſtrict propriety of ſpeech, the *only truly ſupreme* power of the State."

The ſenſible and decided Mr. Paley, in his Principles of moral and political philoſophy, has propagated the ſame doctrine, without limitation and without reſerve. "As a ſeries of appeals muſt be *finite*; there neceſſarily exiſts in every government a power, from which the conſtitution has provided no appeal; and which power, for that reaſon, may be termed abſolute, omnipotent, uncontrollable, arbitrary, deſpotic; and is alike ſo in all countries. The perſon or aſſembly, in whom this power reſides, is called the *ſovereign* or *ſupreme* power of the State. Since to the *ſame* power univerſally appertains the office of *eſtabliſhing public laws*; it is alſo called the *legiſlature* of the State."

It is not improbable, that the doctrine is diſſeminated wherever the Commentaries are generally received as authority.

There is a period in our lives, when we receive *implicitly* whatever we are taught, eſpecially by thoſe, in whom, we think, we can confide. At this very period, the Commentaries, as a book of authority, is put into the hands of young gentlemen, to form the baſis of their law education. Is it ſurpriſing that the reception of its doctrines ſhould be *indiſcriminate*, as well as implicit? Indeed the *former* is the unavoidable conſequence of the *latter*.

But doctrines received implicitly at this period of life, are not eaſily diſmiſſed in its ſubſequent ſtages.

Theſe obſervations *explain*, and, while they explain, they *juſtify* my conduct in examining, ſo fully and ſo minutely, the definitions of *law in general*, and of *municipal law*, given in the Commentaries on the laws of England. This full and minute examination has, at the ſame time, given me a fit opportunity of diſcovering, of illuſtrating, and, I hope, of eſtabliſhing very different principles, as the foundation of the ſcience of law. In this, as in every other ſcience, it is all-important that the foundation be properly and ſurely laid.

Permit me to cloſe this ſubject with the ſentiments of a very learned and ingenious judge, on an occaſion ſomewhat ſimilar to this.

The principles of the revolution in England have been dear to the *whigs*: They have been oppoſed, inveterately and pertinaciouſly, by *tories*. Some paſſages in the law-performances of the great and good Lord chief juſtice Hale were conceived, on both ſides, and juſtly, to militate againſt the principles of that revolution. Theſe paſſages were cited with uncommon exultation; and were, no doubt, diſſeminated, by the votaries of the abdicated family, with extraordinary zeal. Seventy years after the revolution, and ſixteen years after the laſt rebellion, which was raiſed in order to overturn its happy eſtabliſhment, Mr. Juſtice FOSTER thought it his duty to publiſh ſome obſervations on thoſe paſſages, with a view to detect and expoſe

their miſtakes, which were great; and to defend the principles on which the revolution and the ſubſequent eſtabliſhment were founded. Concerning theſe obſervations, and the publication of them, he thus ſpeaks——

"The cauſe of the *Pretender* ſeems now to be abſolutely given up. I hope in GOD it is ſo. But whether the *root* of bitterneſs, the principles, which gave birth, and growth, and ſtrength to it, and have been twice within our memory made a pretence for rebellion, whether thoſe principles be totally eradicated I know not. Theſe I encounter, by ſhewing that certain hiſtorical facts, which the learned judge hath appealed to in ſupport of them, either have no foundation in truth; or, were they true, do not warrant the concluſions drawn from them."

"The paſſages I animadvert upon have been cited with an uncommon degree of triumph, by thoſe, who, to ſay no worſe of them, from the dictates of miſguided conſcience, have treated the revolution and preſent eſtabliſhment, as founded in uſurpation and rebellion; *and they are in every ſtudent's hand.* Why, therefore, may not a good ſubject, be it in ſeaſon or out of ſeaſon, *caution the younger part of the profeſſion* againſt the prejudices, which the name of the Lord chief juſtice Hale, a name ever honoured and eſteemed, may otherwiſe beget in them? I, for my part, make no apology for the freedom I have taken with the ſentiments of an author, whoſe memory I can love and honour, without adopting any of his miſtakes on the ſubject of government."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SIR,

THE following curious fact throws ſo much light on the civil polity of an Indian nation, that it cannot fail to be acceptable to your philoſophical and political readers. It is extracted from a report laid before the Governor of Pennſylvania, by *Timothy Matlack, Samuel Maclay and John Adlum*, commiſſioners ſent out, laſt ſummer, for the purpoſe of viewing the weſtern waters. Finding that part of the territory of the Seneca Indians lay in the way, ſhould the government of Pennſylvania be inclined to open a communication with the weſtern country, by the route which they were appointed to explore, they viſited thoſe Indians, and found them fully ſenſible of their intereſt in the propoſed communication; and deſirous that it ſhould be ſpeedily opened. What follows is in the commiſſioners' own words.

"On the commiſſioners arrival at the town, in which the Cornplanter uſually reſides, they communicated to him, and the men of that town, the errand on which they came. After receiving a welcome, and an approbation of their buſineſs, the commiſſioners retired, and were about to proceed forward, when they were again called to the Council-houſe, where an elderly Indian woman, in the preſence of the Cornplanter, and his council, gave in charge to the com-

miſſioners to inform your Excellency, "That, in the Seneca nation, the women, have as much to ſay in council as the men have, and in all important buſineſs have equal authority: that all affairs of trade and agriculture, are under the ſole direction of the women: That having learned from their wiſe men, that the buſineſs they came on was a ſearch after a better road into their country, than the uſual trading path, the women had judged it proper to expreſs their approbation of that meaſure, which they ſaw was equally advantageous to the Senecas, by leſſening the expence of carriage, as to the white people: that they were ſenſible, that ſince the game was going from among them, their men had been leſs ſucceſsful in hunting than formerly; yet they hoped their trade was well worth their attention: that the propoſal made laſt ſpring by the chiefs of their nation, for introducing the plough amongſt them, had been conſidered and approved by the women; who had the greateſt intereſt in it, as the labour fell wholly on them: That they had, alſo, approved of the requeſt for teachers to be ſent among them, to inſtruct their young people: That if this were done, they hoped that their nation might become one people with the Americans; and the Senecas would then enjoy the advantages which they perceived the white people derived from their ſuperior wiſdom."

B.

AMERICAN ANTIQUITIES.

IN the year 1780, Deacon Paul Crowel, of Chatham, (Cape Cod) obſerved that, on his lands, the rains had gullied a deep place, in a ſloping ground, and as the earth caved down into the gulley, it opened to view, at the depth of three feet from the ſurface of the earth, an human ſkeleton. As the ground had never been uſed, as a burying place, ſince the Engliſh ſettled here, the perſon buried muſt have been a native. From the ſize of the bones, the perſon appeared to have been about ſix feet in height. Around the bones, were found ſome ſmall remains of wood, in the laſt ſtage of diſſolution; and the appearance was, as if ſome crib, or box, had been made round the body, when depoſited there.

With the bones, was alſo found a quantity of ſea-weed, ſome of it entire, in a natural ſtate, and ſome diſſolving and mouldering away. This was, no doubt, placed in the grave, as a bed and covering to the dead. There were alſo found in the grave, a ſtone pipe, and an axe or hatchet, and an inſtrument called a pipe picker, of a different ſubſtance, apparently the bony or cartilaginous part of ſome fiſh. No doubt, theſe inſtruments were depoſited with the dead, under that idea which prevailed among almoſt all the Indian tribes, that theſe things would be of uſe in a future ſtate. Although a perſon enlightened by chriſtianity, may ſmile at theſe groſs ideas of the ſavage, they were ſuch as his circumſtances taught; and their ideas and cuſtoms upon this ſubject, ſerve to eſtabliſh one truth, viz. that they,

like other nations of the earth, believed the *immortality* of the *ſoul*. From theſe circumſtances, it appears, that this perſon muſt have been buried more than a century and an half; and that any of the ſeaweed ſhould have been in a ſtate of preſervation, was probably owing to the ſaline particles with which it was impregnated.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

EXTRACT *of a* Letter *from a* Lady *in* JAMAICA, *to her* Friend *in* PENNSYLVANIA; *On* NOVEL READING.

Mount Edgecomb, 1789.

MY DEAR COUSIN,

BOTH you and I have experienced a woful change. We ſeem to have been born to know great trials; and appear to be ſimilar in our ſentiments and feelings.

Your obſervation of time's blunting the acute edge of our ſenſibility, I own juſt; for if a fair ſtate of the trials which we have to undergo, was to be drawn up, and laid before us, we ſhould tremble and ſink as unable for the taſk. But, from *hope* and *ignorance*, they come on one after another, and we look back with amazement, and almoſt doubt whether we have undergone them in reality. But we muſt be inwardly ſupported by that ſupreme power we exiſt in, and depend on; or our feeble nature muſt often ſink under the weight, eſpecially when it falls on a perſon of quick ſenſibility. I perfectly agree with you, in thinking our ſex is much and tenderly indebted to the great noveliſt *Richardſon*, for painting virtue in ſo pleaſing a garb, in his various performances. But, my dear friend, is not the mind ſo ſoftened, and, if I may uſe the expreſſion, ſo elevated, by the frequent peruſal of ſuch delicate, pathetic, high wrought ſtrokes of ſuperior virtue; as to give the attentive reader a diſreliſh for the more common enjoyments of life? A mind by nature much prone to ſenſibility, and inclined to the *ſentimental*, imperceptibly receives impreſſions which may ſo far ſublime the ideas and ſubtilize the tone of the nerves, as to ſharpen the thorns and roughen the rugged paths of life, through which it may be our lot to paſs, and which might be much leſs felt by a mind that was only filled with the common opinions of *happineſs* and *mediocrity*: To minds of the latter caſt not only trifles are an amuſement; but diſapointments, in many caſes, ſeem not to be felt with that poignancy of diſtreſs which the more tender and irritable experience, that have read much of the affecting ſpecies of compoſition; yet I will allow, the latter have their advantages, in ſome points, over the former, and perhaps ſuch as may, in ſpite of all I have advanced, turn the ſcale, for if they apply their refined and moral novels to their proper uſe, they can call in the aid of *reaſon* and *religion* to their aſſiſtance, by examples ſet before them. And, in ſome meaſure, reconcile themſelves to think, that all thoſe evils

muſt, in the courſe of nature, terminate in final reſt; and that as we are at beſt only ſhort ſojourners here, the more patiently we bear our journey, the lighter and more pleaſing every ſtep will become, as being nearer its end.

I am now ſixty three, yet I can enjoy a good *novel*, as I never exclude any ſpecies of reading that I can comprehend, and which has a moral tendency; Therefore, I would recommend the excellent novel of Cecilia to my young friends.

D. S.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

HISTORY *of* PHILANDER FLASHAWAY; *or the Misfortunes of a* SCRIBBLER.

BEFORE I attempt to give a ſketch of Mr. Flaſhaway's talents and hiſtory, I think it neceſſary to deſcribe, in ſome degree, the characteriſtics of his immediate predeceſſors.

Mr. John Flaſhaway, the grand-father of our hero, was born in London, in the year 1670. You may therefore preſume, that in 1688 (the epocha of the Engliſh revolution) he was equally capable of handling a pen and a firelock. He was a companion of the moſt celebrated authors in thoſe days; perfectly underſtood the art of manufacturing paragraphs; and, in conjunction with a Temple, a Swift, a Locke, and a number of ſubaltern writers, obliged the public with various eſſays on government; on the ſtate of the then exiſting politicks; the vibration of a pendulum; the beſt means of preſerving credit, and inculcating religion and morality, &c. He was a friend of toleration, having been expelled from all religious ſocieties, of which, at various times, he had become a member; and was a true patriot, inaſmuch as his opinions ever coincided with thoſe of the ruling party; for in Britain, (which has been ſometimes ſtiled a republic) the majority ought to govern.

In the remainder of this account, I ſhall barely tranſcribe Mr. Flaſhaway's words, as lately communicated to me in a letter.

"My grand-father, after having buffeted the waves of party for many years, began to lead a retired life; and, at the age of ſixty, died—in a jail—having long ſurvived the iſſue of his *Brain*. My father was his ſole begotten in the fleſh; the heir of his poverty and pride. Educated on the lap of party, he was extremely inquiſitive, and ſometimes querulous. He imbibed the love of religious diſputation from the nipple of his nurſe, and was known to articulate high-church and low-church, before he could pronounce bread and butter. In the tenets of whiggiſm and toryiſm, according to the acceptation of theſe words, in thoſe days, he became more fully verſed, as he advanced in years, than in his catechiſm. He was acknowledged to have received more than one bow from Walpole; to have ſhaken hands with Gay; to have travelled, like a pilgrim, to Pope's grotto

at Twickenham ; and to have dined at a chop-houſe with Swift and Steel. Thus qualified and honoured, what prevented him from riſing in the world, with reſpect to property ? It was envy, baſe envy. The great were aſhamed to acknowledge their obligations to him, becauſe to reward him adequately was out of their power ; and at an advanced age he married his landlady, in order to avoid the horrors of a jail.

Although by this union a mutual obligation was conferred, (as ſhe procured a huſband by it, and he was preſerved from impriſonment,) yet it is ſtrange, that they never lived in harmony. He excelled at the pen, and ſhe in the powers of the tongue. Knowing him to be a writer, ſhe imputed to him thoſe ſarcaſms, in the public prints, which had reference to women ; and accuſed him of lazineſs, even when exhauſted by ſtudy ; often lamenting, that ſhe had not married a cobler, in preference to a ſcribbler. He, in turn, complained, that his meals were always at too late, or too early an hour ; that domeſtic diſputes prevented him, in a great meaſure, from attending to the affairs of the nation ; that her extravagance diverted his mind from the national debt ; and that it was impoſſible for him to write like Plato, when tormented like Socrates. At length, gentle reader, her firſt child died, and I ruſhed into the world ; the heir of poverty and of petulance ; the ſport of fortune, and, more than probably, the future victim of want.

After having endured exiſtence for nearly three years after my birth, both parents expired about the ſame time. In nothing did they ever ſeem to agree, but in the period of their diſſolution.

I was now left an orphan, without property, expectations, or a friend. The country, however, in which I was born, was, like this, remarkable for humanity. I was taken to a charitable inſtitution ; there decently attended to ; and in due ſeaſon received thoſe rudiments of education, which I have aſſiduouſly laboured to improve.

At the age of fourteen I made the tour of the world, (I mean in books) with Drake, Dampier, and others ; and was particularly attached to works of fancy. At eighteen, having been for ſome time apprenticed to a haberdaſher, I commenced my career in politicks. What obligations have I not conferred on a North, and a Fox ; on a Burke and a Clive ? But I have been ever treated with ingratitude—except by printers, bookſellers, and ballad-ſingers. They have often, to their credit be it ſpoken, preſerved me from famine, that moſt cruel ſcourge of genius.

Determined at length on quitting England, I embarked ſoon after the peace for America. My genius has by no means drooped, nor has my pen been idle ; and I am ready to write the heads of a bill for a legiſlator, commencement orations for young gentlemen, or the items of an account for a tavern-keeper.

Should this ſketch of my life attract the notice of ſuch as are willing and able to encourage literary talents, I ſhall devote myſelf intirely to the pen and the preſs ; and, after having been half-ſtarved in Europe, humbly hope, that I ſhall not be ſuffered to periſh by hunger in America."

Such is the hiſtory of a man, who, had he perſevered in his original occupation, might have reflected credit on ſociety; and experience evinces, that there are many miſerable candidates for literary fame, who might have been rich and happy, had they perſevered in their original vocations. To ſuch, the hiſtory of Philander Flaſhaway affords an uſeful leſſon.

A. W.

Philadelphia, 1791.

On the FALLACY *of the* POLITICAL DOCTRINE, *that* CIVIL LIBERTY *can only exiſt in a* SMALL TERRITORY.*

WHATEVER be the ſize of the territory, the celerity of all motions would be greater in free conſtitutions, judiciouſly conſtructed, than in communities conſiſting only of multitudes without arrangement, and actuated by the caprices of tyranny. Fear has never proved, nor can it ever be rendered, a motive ſo powerful and certain, as intereſt well defined, and generating public affection. That deſpots ſhould be more competent to the taſk of ſuiting particular laws to particular occaſions, as they may riſe in an extenſive empire, than magiſtrates entruſted with power, in conſideration of virtue aud talents, is too abſurd to deſerve conſideration.

That political liberty can, from the nature of things, occupy only ſmall ſpots; and that when nations extend their borders, and become populous and opulent, they neceſſarily loſe their liberty, is a pernicious opinion of Monteſquieu; and is owing to an error into which he has frequently fallen, of not diſtinguiſhing political and ſcientific truth from hiſtorical fact. If he had ſaid, the talents neceſſary to form political conſtitutions are ſo uncommon, and the difficulties attending the exerciſe of them ſo great, that they ſeldom advance beyond experiments and models, in contracted ſpaces; that when thoſe ſpaces are enlarged, and particularly by ſudden or violent accidents, the greateſt men are apt to ſhrink from the taſk of extending their plans; and that deſperate adventurers ſeize the direction of tumultuous torrents, under the denomination of generals or monarchs, this would have been ſtating truths, and alledging reaſons; but it would not have proved the author's opinion—that the evil is in the form of government; and that nothing can redreſs it.

* This is an extract from Lectures on Political Principles, by Mr. Williams, who has examined many of the opinions of Monteſquieu, with a manly freedom. This extract, we hope, will induce ſome able American politician to take up the ſubject, on more extenſive grounds; for there is probably no opinion of Monteſquieu, from the refutation of which ſo much ſatisfaction would ariſe in the minds of the citizens of the United States. It is true, they have, at this moment, an experimental proof of its fallacy; but it is to be feared, notwithſtanding, that *ſome* are apprehenſive leſt this ſhould not continue, without any better reaſon for their fears than Monteſquieu's opinion.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

To the Hon. *the* Corporation *of the city of* Philadelphia, *the petition of* SUNDRY HORSES *in the ſaid city humbly ſheweth,*

THAT your petitioners are conſcious of the humble rank aſſigned to them by their creator, and that they cheerfully ſubmit to the pre-eminence of man in the ſcale of animal beings, by yielding the labour of their lives for his benefit.

That in return for this ſubmiſſion to the firſt of animals which inhabits our globe, they expect to be treated with juſtice and humanity.

That theſe two cardinal virtues, which are of univerſal obligation from man to beaſt, as well as from man to man, have been violated towards your petitioners in many particulars, of which they beg leave to lay a detail before your honourable board.

Many of us, after having ſerved as coach-horſes, for 15 or 20 years, are ſold to carters, and compelled to drag loads of wood beyond our ſtrength.—Our failure is ſeverely puniſhed by being beaten in the moſt cruel manner, not only on our bodies and limbs, but on our heads, by which means many of us have loſt the uſe of our eyes. The food we receive, while in the hands of theſe our new maſters, is ſcanty in quantity, and by no means ſuited to the ſtate of our teeth, which are both decayed and leſſened in number, by the effects of age upon them.

Many of your petitioners are compelled to work all the week, and, inſtead of enjoying the benefit of reſt on the ſabbath day, which the creator of the world intended equally for the benefit of man and beaſt, we are hired out to ſailors and others, who know nothing of the peculiar nature of our ſpecies, and who, by hard riding, and ſtarving us, greatly impair our ſtrength, and thereby render us unfit for the labour of the enſuing week.

Many of us, who are the property of citizens and kept in livery ſtables, are deprived of the allowance of grain paid for, by our maſters, by the ſervants of the ſaid livery-ſtables, and thereby we are ſo much injured in our ſtrength, as to diſappoint the expectations of our maſters, when we are called into their ſervice.

Many of us are kept idle during the week, and ridden only on ſundays, by which means we loſe our health, for want of exerciſe; and afterwards are obliged, unwillingly, to ſhare with our maſters in the profanation of a day allotted to the beaſts for reſt, and to man for the public worſhip of his maker.

Many of us, who are uſed only as carriage-horſes, are taken out of warm ſtables, and expoſed, for two or three hours, at the doors of gentlemen's houſes, at all hours of the evening and night, in cold and wet weather, waiting until young ladies have fitted their craws and biſhops, or till young maſters have fitted their collars, and fixed their ſhoe-ſtraps, by which means we have caught colds, and have afterwards ſuffered a great decay in our health and ſtrength.

Your petitioners having briefly ſtated their grievances, humbly re-

queſt that the corporation would redreſs them, in ſuch a manner as their wiſdom ſhall direct. They ſhall treſpaſs upon the time of the corporation only while they ſuggeſt to them the following reflections.

That, as the enjoyment of your petitioners in life are *few*, compared with thoſe of man, their wants and ſufferings ſhould be in the ſame proportion. That food, reſt, health, and warmth conſtitute the principal part of their happineſs. That the cruelty of depriving them of theſe comforts is enhanced, by their not being ſupplied with a hundred enjoyments which are peculiar to man. That they are, notwithſtanding, connected with him by many common ties. They were called to partake with him of the bleſſings of exiſtence, by the ſame Almighty and benevolent Being; they enjoy with him the fruits of the divine goodneſs, in air, light, water, and food; and they ſhare with him in the daily protection of the ſame kind and bountiful parent of the univerſe.

Signed, in behalf of all the horſes in Philadelphia, by

Bay.
Black.
Sorrel.
Grey.
Star.
Roan.

} A committe, for the purpoſe of petitioning the corporation.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

WISDOM *and* TRUTH; *An* ALLEGORY, *in two Parts. Part the Second.**

Count all the joys which proſperous vice attains,
'Tis but what virtue flies from, and diſdains.

POPE.

NO ſooner was the little ſtranger introduced into our regions, than his mamma, who did not chuſe to undergo the fatigue of ſuckling him, ſought out, with indefatigable pains, for a female to ſupply her place. After many eſſays and enquiries, ſhe met with one, who by many was thought to reſemble herſelf; but ſhe was milder in her aſpect, and had a ſofter tone of voice, which on ſome occaſions dwindled into a *whining accent*. The tattling neighbourhood whiſpered, that, by the mother's ſide, ſhe was ſiſter to *Falſhood* herſelf; for *Falſhood* was not baſe born, but was the child of *Self-love* and *Subtlety*; and *Truth* ſaid that *Subtlety* had *crim. con.* with *Hypocriſy*, and that *Diſſimulation* was the child of that affair. Be that as it may, for I do not aſſert for truth this piece of ſecret hiſtory, *Diſſimulation* was educated at a polite court, far from the rural ſcenes of the Placid Grove; ſhe, with all her refinements, could not keep clear of *Lothario*, and he left her in a ſituation to diſcharge the office of foſter-mother to *Cunning*. She was allowed to bring her young ſon, who was called *Stratagem*,

* For Part Firſt ſee the Aſylum for laſt month, page 93.

to the mount, where he was the conſtant companion and play-mate of maſter *Cunning*. The latter throve amazingly under the management of the two ladies. On a tranſient ſurvey he appeared to reſemble his father; but thoſe who were intimate with *Wiſdom*, and ſkilled in *Phyſiognomy*, ſaw he had much more of his mother in his countenance: He was near-ſighted, and had a *ſly ſquint*, whereas *Wiſdom* had an open front, full eye, aud much fire. Although there was a great ſimilitude between the voice of *Cunning* and that of his father, yet there was in the latter a manly note which the other, with all his art, could never imitate, though he was an excellent mimick.

It would be difficult to relate all the tricks and contrivances of this little urchin, his temper appearing to be what is ſaid of the *Chamelion*, to take a tincture from whatever it was near; yet, though to appearance variable, his grand-father, (by his mother's ſide) *Self-love*, was always the predominant feature of his character. He appeared fonder of *Stratagem* than of any thing, yet if he could out-wit him by any turn or *quirk*, he enjoyed it as much as though he had been the greateſt ſtranger. *Stratagem* was two years older than *Cunning*, and, as he grew up, aſſiſted him in all intrigues, not attended with perſonal danger; they both on all occaſions took care to ſhun that, as they had much natural timidity. Theſe children had an amazing knack of putting bigger boys on any enterpriſe of danger, and then reaping the larger part of the ſpoil the others had ventured hard to obtain.

They ſpent many days in the woods, making gins and decoys for ſquirrels; they had the honour to be among the firſt who thought of the happy invention to take a live *worm*, and place it writhing on a *bearded-hook*, which *jags* all its ſenſible *parts*, and re-produces torture on the gills and throat of the poor fiſh, who, ſnapping at its food, is drawn up by the triumphant angler. One of his moſt *funny things* (as he termed it) was to ſkin frogs alive, and ſee how far they would ſkip and leap after their ſkins were off. His mamma and nurſe, when he was but a year old, uſed to thread *bull-finches* and other inſects, like beads on a ſtring, alive, and divert him with their torn wings and maſhed bodies; and as, like all children, he ſoon was tired of one object, little land-tortoiſes were brought and coals of fire put on their backs, to make them run faſt, contrary to their nature.

As *Stratagem* and he grew older, if any difficulty occurred, they would ſteal the neighbours tools and utenſils, to forward their deſigns; and that, in ſo artful a manner as to elude all danger of being caught in the fact, or puniſhed, for his mamma and nurſe told him, none but fools were ever detected. As he grew older, and the powers of his mind expanded, he, with *Stratagem*, made many improvements too tedious to relate. They contrived a walking cane, which appeared like a common cane; but being hollow within, on the leaſt touch, a ſpring would produce a ſharp dagger, and ſurprize the unſuſpecting and often innocent traveller with its point. Of all animals an *ape* was that which *Cunning* moſt delighted in; but he could not abide a *dog*, he ſaid they were ſuch fools as to ſtarve rather than leave their owners, and they were always ſmelling out every thing one did. His mamma indulged him with a monkey; indeed they appeared very congenial characters.

At length *Wiſdom*, who lived a very retired life in the grove, with his daughter *Contemplation*, who came down to ſtay with him, frequently heard of the forward genius of maſter *Cunning*, and that he performed exploits, which were looked on as very extraordinary at ſo early a period of life.

Wiſdom by no means approved of the education which he knew the boy muſt receive at the *Mount*, ſo he ſent his old ſervant *Honeſty* with his compliments to *Falſhood*, and deſired ſhe would permit her ſon to come and take his reſidence ſome years at the *Placid Grove*, as he was now of an age to receive ſome leſſons which did not immediately fall under the compaſs of female government.

Falſhood was much gratified by this piece of attention from *Wiſdom*, as ſhe never had been honoured with the leaſt notice from him ſince her important viſit to the Placid Grove. She cheerfully diſpatched her ſon, after giving him a few private inſtructions how to gain the good opinion of *Wiſdom*; ſhe wiſhed to ſend *Stratagem* to be his companion, but that old Honeſty firmly refuſed, ſaying "he foreſaw he ſhould have plague enough with one of the brats, without being worried with a brace; and added, that he believed, before they parted, he ſhould have reaſon to remember the cordial water he had to amble after one dark night, ten years ago." Since *Falſhood* could not obtain the requeſt for *Stratagem* to attend her ſon, ſhe begged that he might be accompanied by the next object of his regard, namely, the *ape*; and this *Honeſty* granted by way of compromiſe.

Cunning was obliged to part with his young companion; and though he appeared to grieve at the ſeparation, he did not think ten minutes about it, for old Honeſty told him that his maſter would not approve of Stratagem's coming by any means: this flexibility of temper did not proceed from any ſenſe of duty, for that he had no notion of, but art of ſelf-intereſt, which was the leading clue to all his actions.

When they arrived at the Placid Grove, *Cunning* was ſtruck with an awe and reverence, on the general face of things, which appeared gloomy to him, and not near ſo agreeable as the gay and airy taſte which prevailed in the Mount of Vanity. *Wiſdom* received him with a mixture of tenderneſs and gravity, ſuitable to his character; and *Contemplation* with a compoſed politeneſs: but he conceived an irreconcilable averſion to her, which he concealed under the moſt perfect appearance of reſpect and attention.

Wiſdom obſerved all his movements, with the moſt exact ſcrutiny: he ſaw he had a prodigious ſhare of his mother in his compoſition, but he was in hopes that time, good examples, and daily inſtructions would eradicate his natural bent. But wiſdom knew not half his quirks and turns. Beſides, his paternal affection a little biaſſed him in favour of the boy; and Contemplation was too good-natured to tell tales. *Wiſdom* endeavoured to make his ſon admire the picture of *Truth*, which hung in the bower of Contemplation. This was among the firſt rudiments of his education, in order to try his diſpoſition.

Cunning would appear all attention, and would often break out into exclamations of admiration at his father's inſtructions. "Ah, cried he, I ſaw nothing like this! I heard nothing like this at the palace of my mamma! to be ſure, ſhe is my mother, and it does not

become me ——" Here he would ſtop, and bend his head, as if he meant to ſuppreſs a ſigh; and by that means ſcreen a ſmile, to think how he was deceiving old Grey-Beard, for that was the appellation he beſtowed on *Wiſdom*, in places where he apprehended it would not be mentioned. He was an excellent mimick, and his favourite amuſement was, to take off any little oddity that appeared in amiable characters, and place it in a moſt ridiculous point of view, to divert his little circle. Old Honeſty never could be brought to like him; but in all their bickerings, he ſo far got the better of that faithful domeſtick, that the latter never made complaint to his maſter about him.

A few inſtances of his ready knack ſhall be given, to ſhew that he knew how to ſubſtitute an excuſe for a reaſon, according to the temper he had to deal with. As was above mentioned, he was void of compaſſion to any thing he had in his power. *Wiſdom* came unawares on him at one time, and found him ſending an unfortunate cat up in the air on a bladder. His father reproved him, made him releaſe the animal, and aſked how ſuch a barbarous action could enter his mind. He directly anſwered, that "the barbarity of it never occurred to him, he was ſo totally engroſſed with the experiment of the effects of air, and preſſure and counter-preſſure, which he had heard *Wiſdom* lecture on to ſome of the bigger boys of the neighbourhood." On another occaſion, his father caught him inhumanly cutting and hacking a turtle-dove, the ſame remonſtrance was given by *Wiſdom* as in the affair of the cat; and *Cunning* replied, "His lectures on the wonders of animal life had excited a curioſity in him to mark the pipes and channels that it paſſed through."

Wiſdom charged him, for the future, not to attempt any experiments of the kind, unleſs when ſome one was with him, who knew how to direct the operation to his benefit; and he promiſed to give up theſe experiments for the future.

Wiſdom was one day writing very intently on an abſtruſe ſubject, which required all the powers of his mind, and his pupil in the room, and no third perſon: *Wiſdom* was haſtily called out, on ſome buſineſs, he locked the door, left Cunning in the room, and all the writing apparatus on the table. He ſoon returned, and found the pen mangled, and chips of it on the floor. He reproved the boy for attempting to mend the pen; the child denied it: upon which his father remonſtrated with him on the folly of ſuch conduct, when the proof was ſo plain, from the appearance of the chips on the floor, and no ſoul elſe having been in the room. He was about to correct him, for his obſtinate perſeverance in an untruth, when the boy, in tears, and with the moſt ſolemn aſſeverations, vowed he was clear of the charge. *Wiſdom* looked on this as a ſerious tranſaction; and as he was ſometimes liable to reveries, and abſtractions of thought, he perſuaded himſelf that he might have taken the knife, and forgot that he had done it, from his deep thought on the ſubject which engaged his attention. Suſpicion was no part of the character of *Wiſdom*; he felt hurt that he had accuſed his ſon, and for ſome time after treated him with uncommon affection, to make amends for his late unkindneſs. A ſhort time after, *Cunning* boaſted, among his play-mates, how he had flung old Grey-Beard in the affair

of the pen. A blunt boy of the groupe ſaid, "And were you not aſhamed to tell ſuch a lie?" "I told no lie," replied *Gunning*, "my father charged me with mending his pen; whereas I did not mend, but ſpoiled it." Various were the evaſions, and flimſy ſubterfuges of this little genius, to elude detection and puniſhment, in which art he made every day greater proficiency, as a moral poet applies to another occaſion.

"Grows with our growth, and ſtrengthens with our ſtrength."

(To be concluded in our next.)

Account *of the* TURKISH GOVERNMENT.

(Tranſlated from the Abate Toderini's* *hiſtory of Turkiſh Literature, publiſhed at Venice in* 1787.)

As far as I have been able to diſcern, ſays the author, *to colour every thing with the appearance of religion and juſtice—to make a traffic of public offices, and change them often—and to puniſh with death the ſmalleſt faults*—are the chief engines of the Ottoman policy.

A blind obedience to the ſovereign's will is inculcated on youth, more as a matter of religion than of ſtate. *Fourteen* of his ſubjects the tyrant may every day put to death, without aſſigning any other motive than ſecret inſpiration. The Mufti's acquieſcence is ſufficient to give force and authority to the moſt abſurd ordinance. The moſt difficult enterprizes are held forth as willed by heaven, and written in the combination of the ſtars, as ſeen by the imperial Aſtrologer. War with chriſtian princes is ſuppoſed to be a religious one; and they who die in the field of battle are accounted Martyrs.

The ſudden and frequent changes in the public offices keep in continual awe and depreſſion the moſt powerful perſons in the empire; and the fear of being in a moment reduced from the height of proſperity to the loweſt gulph of miſery prevents them from amaſſing great riches, or forming dangerous cabals. True it is, that during their ſhort adminiſtration they ſqueeze from the wretched people as much money as they can, by every fraudful artifice, and deſpotic violence. The injured vaſſals murmur and complain; but government winks at the oppreſſion, with a view to ſeize at length the collected ſpoils. Under the ſpecious veil of equity the cruel peculator is ſtrangled, and the whole fruits of his rapine carried into the royal treaſury.

Such is the diſmal picture of the Turkiſh polity—a polity altogether Machiavelian—before a Machiavel appeared; though it muſt be allowed that none of their political writings are ſo deteſtable as thoſe of *the Prince* of Machiavel.

* This gentleman had an opportunity of acquiring much information reſpecting the Turks, from a reſidence of ſeveral years at Conſtantinople.

On the CAUSES *which produce* FAMINE *in* CHINA, *and the* MEANS *uſed for* PREVENTING *it.*

(Tranſlated from the Abbe GROSIER'S *Deſcription of* CHINA.*)*

WHAT prevents famines in Europe is freedom of commerce, and the facility with which one country may be ſupplied from another: China is deſtitute of this advantage.—Placed by itſelf in the extremity of Aſia, and ſurrounded by barbarous nations, it muſt nouriſh itſelf, and procure from its own ſoil whatever is neceſſary for the ſubſiſtence of that immenſe number of inhabitants which is contained in its provinces. This, therefore, at all times, has been the grand object of the care of the publick miniſters. China has always had granaries and magazines erected in every province, and in moſt of the principal cities, for the relief of the people in times of ſcarcity. We ſtill read orders and edicts of the ancient Emperors, which are full of the tendereſt expreſſions towards their ſuffering ſubjects. *We can,* ſay they, *neither eat, drink, nor enjoy repoſe, until we have relieved the publick miſery.*

Theſe fatherly expreſſions, if taken literally, muſt be underſtood as reſpecting the time when the Chineſe were governed by Emperors of their own nation, who conſidered their ſubjects as their children. At preſent, the theory is ſtill the ſame; orders are iſſued in the like manner; and, in the provinces, they eaſily impoſe upon thoſe who hear them publiſhed; but, at court, all theſe fine words, which practice belies, are reduced to their proper value. The Emperor perhaps may ſtill have the ſame affection for his ſubjects; but the officers who are entruſted with his orders, are far from executing them with equal zeal. The delays and impediments that keep back ſuccour, for the moſt part prevent it from arriving ſeaſonably. When the crop has failed in any of the provinces, before the mandarins, who have the government of it, can ſend their memorials to court; before theſe memorials have paſſed through all the hands neceſſary to convey them to the Emperor; before this prince has aſſembled the grandees and different tribunals; and before commiſſaries are appointed and ſent out, the ſuffering people are reduced to the greateſt extremities, and a thouſand unhappy wretches periſh before any aſſiſtance arives.

Another cauſe of the ſcarcity of grain in China, is the prodigious conſumption which is occaſioned daily by the compoſition of wines, and of a kind of ſpirituous liquor called *rack.* This is one of the grand ſources of the evil, both in the northern and ſouthern provinces; government is not ignorant of it; but it employs too weak means to prevent it. Proclamations have often been publiſhed, forbidding the diſtillation of *rack.* The orders of the court are every where poſted up, and announced in all the cities by the governors. Officers, appointed for the purpoſe, viſit the ſtill-houſes, and deſtroy the furnaces, if nothing is given them; but if the owner ſlips into their hand a few pieces of ſilver, they ſhut their eyes, and go ſomewhere elſe to act the ſame farce. The mandarin ſometimes goes

round himself; the workmen are then seized and thrown into prison; after which, they are condemned to be whipped, or to carry what is called the *cangue*; but they are never punished with death. The makers of wine then change their habitations, conceal themselves for a short while, and again begin their operations.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

On the HAPPY INFLUENCE *of the* FEMALE SEX *in Society, and the* ABSURD *practice of separating the* SEXES *immediately after* DINNER.

SO necessary to the happiness of man, that little lord of this inferior world, is his counter-part, the woman, that she constitutes the most essential portion of his felicity, abstracted from every idea of a sensual nature; and although we know one end of her creation was, that she might be the mother of mankind; yet that she might also be a rational companion for the other sex, was not the least considerable.

Who, that considers the amiable qualifications of the fair sex, but must feel an animation of soul, superior to what any other terrestrial object is capable of giving.—The beauteous form, the exquisite sensibility, the enchanting animation, the pleasing sallies of wit and humour, and the astonishing quickness of perception, by which the female mind is capable of the most sublime elevations, together with that softness, delicacy, and refinedness of manner, with which heaven has endued her, all, all, conspire to captivate and charm the soul of man!

From these excellencies, both of body and mind, how suitable a companion for man! Man, the rougher sex, who though perhaps more capable of deep study, and the investigation of abstruse subjects, yet wants that enlivening vivacity—How fitly qualified to sooth his cares and give a more excellent *gout* to his pleasures! We may justly adopt the poet's strains.

> "Man was at first a rude unpolish'd mass,
> Till nature fram'd that charming creature woman,
> All kind and soft, all tender and divine,
> To mend our faults and mould us into virtue,
> And by the sweets of her refreshing goodness,
> Prepare our tastes for never ending joys."
>
> OTWAY.

I am well aware that, in this case, as well as others, we may allow there is no general rule without exception.—Certain it is there are some, even amongst the ladies, who have not united these amiable qualities in them; but in general it is the case, and these various charms are, for the most part, heightened in proportion as the mind has been

cultivated by education. Even the exterior beauties are considerably dependent on a due cultivation of the mind. What attention then is necessary to female education! and I must say, with the most pleasing sensations, that I have observed an increasing regard paid to this source of social happiness, within a few years past, in these States. How are those nations to be pitied and despised, who consider the female part of the species as far inferior to the male, and in consequence, entirely disregard, and totally neglect to instruct, their daughters, considering them only as the future slaves of some rightful lords and masters, who shall bid highest for them in their purchase.* Amongst those despicable, narrow minded wretches, are to be numbered those who, from a pretended esteem and value for the women, keep them shut up at home, or only permit them to walk out veiled and attended, and by this means deprive society of so invaluable a blessing as the company and conversation of the ladies.

I doubt not but every citizen of America will, at once, join with me in reprobating such conduct, without imagining they are in any measure tainted with a similar vice, viz. banishing the ladies from society. But what will they say, when I tell numbers of the most polite and fashionable gentlemen of the present day; and Americans too, "Thou art the man!" and "thou art the man!" I am sure their bosoms would glow with resentment, and they would spurn at the very idea, and perhaps demand satisfaction. Well, I am ready to give them the satisfaction of proving the fact—I will not undertake to prove that they run the length of the Chinese, Turks, and even some Europeans; that is, they don't entirely exclude them from the society of the gentlemen; but are so cruel to the ladies of their own families, unjust to themselves, and uncivil to their visitors, as to deprive them of the company and conversation of the ladies of the family, for a considerable portion of that time their friends or acquaintance spend with them! In short, to speak plainly, I mean that odious custom of banishing the ladies from the table immediately after they dine, from a supposition, either that they are disqualified to partake in the conversation, or that a loose is to be given to conversation upon such vulgar or indecent subjects, as would be disgusting to a delicate and refined mind. I cannot help saying that I am always heartily vexed, when invited to take a dinner with an acquaintance, at my host's paying me so poor compliment, as to suppose me pleased at the expulsion of the most agreeable and charming part of the company; with the dismission of the most delightful part of the entertainment—But why should I resent his supposing my taste similar to his own? Because I know that he is indeed influenced by custom, in a conduct which his own judgment condemns; and therefore must suppose that his guests would be best pleased with a dispensation of tyrannic custom, since they were likely to be so much the gainers by it, in exhilirating their spirits with the delicious potation of a mental nectar, instead of stupifying their senses with the soporifick quality of the grape-juice. He who forms other ideas of the taste of his company, necessarily sinks them,

* It is a well known fact that several of the eastern nations, at this day, sell their daughters to be the wives of the purchasers; and polygamy being allowed, the more wives a man has the richer he is, they being considered as so many slaves.

in his own mind, some degrees nearer the level of brutes, by supposing they prefer the sensual gratification of drinking, to the pleasing and refined one of an accomplished woman's conversation.—I know the sons of Bacchus, who are wedded to the bottle, will condemn such sentiments; and would rather part with one half their mental faculties than part with this jovial ruddy companion. This is evident by their so frequently bartering their reason for their bottle.

Is it not ridiculous to see a company of rational, and sometimes sensible, and in other respects polite men, discarding the most beautiful part of the creation, merely to intoxicate themselves, degrade their natures, and engage in the most vulgar and indecent discourse? Surely it is. Perhaps it will be said, it is not for this purpose the ladies are dismissed. If not, why are they obliged to withdraw? you answer, it is of choice. This may be the case, for when men are determined to become brutes, angels will unquestionably forsake them. —I doubt not but there are some families where the ladies withdraw from mere custom; nor do the gentlemen always become inebriated in consequence; but they are deprived of a blessing. Why do we not follow the worthy example of our allies, the French? They would think it the highest insult to the understanding of their guests, to suppose them capable of preferring the liquor to the ladies—They too well know the pleasure of their conversation; therefore they say, *Les Demoiselles animent la converſation.* Which is literally true; for the subjects which are generally discussed at such seasons are not the intricate mazes of politicks, the perplexing theorems of mathematical investigation, nor the dull calculations of the counting-house; but that familiar flow of discourse, on common subjects, generally called small talk, which requires an ease of expression and quickness of thought, and we may add, genuine wit, to support it with spirit. These we shall find more generally united in the ladies: and as more attention has of late years been paid to their education, we find them, for the most part, qualified to converse upon almost every improving, as well as pleasing, topic of conversation.—I am no enemy to a cheerful glass of wine, but then I would have it *á la Françoiſe*, have my tumbler, and drink during the meal, or when I am dry, and that either mixed or pure, as I like.—When the cloth is removed, let the wine be removed; and if there is any charm in sitting round the table for an hour longer, let the coffee be introduced, in which the ladies will partake with us—I am surprised this custom is not more generally adopted, especially among the families who do not make a point of debauching every gentleman that dines with them. Some there are who will push about the bottle briskly, with the express design of knocking down their company; and, indeed, unless a gentleman has virtue enough to endure the stigma of clownishness, or the appellation of a milk-sop, he must become a downright brute—This is a scandal to a virtuous people, and an infringement upon the liberties of a free citizen—When I have made propositions for reforming this abuse, by the example of some of our leading characters, it has been objected, that, whatever their motives may be in dismissing the bottle instead of the ladies, they will be branded with the imputation of covetousness; and that they are more desirous of preserving the

wine than partaking of the conversation of the women! I might justly reply to this, that none but the invidous and illiberal, or the toper and spunger, would or could draw such conclusions, and they are not worth regarding.

But as I really am seriously in earnest to promote this reformation, I would propose a method by which every aspersion of that kind may be obviated,—the design accomplished, and another valuable end answered at the same time—Let some of our distinguished characters, whose example will have an effect upon the minds of others; or those who are from their stations entitled to lead the fashion; or some whose fortune will give them pretensions to lead, adopt the mode recommended above, viz. let the wine be removed with the cloth, the coffee introduced, and the ladies' company solicited; but previous to the party's breaking up, or the company's retiring, let the master of the house calculate the quantity of wine usually drunk upon such occasions, with the cost, call in a servant, deliver the money to him, and direct him to go and put it into the charity-box, or bestow it on some worthy object. This would entirely exculpate him, banish a most pernicious fashion out of his house, set a worthy example for others, relieve the necessities of the poor, and ensure their prayers and blessings.—There would be a kind of merit in such charities, for when we give without denying ourselves some superfluity, it is only like throwing away that for which we have no use. It is said of Dean Swift, that when he dined without company, he usually drank a pint of small beer, and gave to some needy person the price of a pint of wine.

In reprobating this irrational and odious practice of sitting to drink after dinner, I have never so much as hinted at the immorality, not to say impiety of such a practice, well knowing that this consideration would have but little weight with people of fashion, or those who are the dupes of the polite practices that have been enumerated, and are slaves to Bacchus!—I have therefore endeavoured to draw my arguments from such circumstances as are calculated to strike their senses.—Let us farther reflect what the ladies themselves must think of those gentlemen, who are votaries at a shrine where no female is admitted; or, in other words, tacitly inform them, they expect a joyous companion in the decanter, which they prefer to all their smiles, their charms, or their conversation!——Often, when I have seen the ladies withdraw upon the removal of the cloth, and introduction of the wine, I have thought of the very civil mode in which the Turks dismiss their visitors, when tired of their company. A servant enters with a chaffing-dish of coals, upon which is strewed some odoriferous gums, and the censer of smoaking incense is carried round to each person whose company is to be dispensed with; which is a concise method of bidding him depart, and is well understood by the guest, who cordially withdraws, without the least resentment, custom having established the mode.—Therefore, if the ladies, upon sight of our polite chaffing-dish, move off without seeming resentment, and appear tolerably pleased when you see them next, yet assuredly they are vexed at heart, when they reflect upon the base preference, and the contemptible ideas we must entertain of them———

Beſides, upon the adoption of the propoſed plan, there would ariſe advantages, both of a phyſical and political nature, to individuals, as well as to the publick at large.———Our conſtitutions would be leſs injured by exceſs in drinking, our circumſtances leſs embarraſſed by the expence, and our manners more refined—The publick would alſo reap the advantage, as the leſs wine there is drunk, the leſs will be imported, which will throw ſo much of the balance of trade in our favour, in the political ſcale.

PHILOKOINONEAS.

On the USELESSNESS *and* FOLLY *of attempting to develope the* ORIGIN *of* CIVIL SOCIETY.

(From Williams's Lectures on Political Principles.)

THE principles of civil ſociety are, like thoſe of the ſciences, to be deduced from experience, obſervation, and reflection; not from the fables of tradition, nor the reveries of imagination. How the firſt houſe was conſtructed, or what were the preciſe motives for erecting it, would not be a more fruitleſs inquiry, than the exact paſſion, or ſentiment, which collected the firſt community. The architect, the moraliſt, and the politician, muſt be governed by final cauſes; the greateſt poſſible utility and pleaſure to be derived both from the ingenious conſtruction of the habitation, and the wiſe inſtitution of the ſociety.

POPULATION, *without reſpect to* PROPERTY, *ought to be* REPRESENTED *in a* FREE GOVERNMENT.

(From the ſame.)

IN free ſtates, the beſt inheritance of every man ſhould be the laws and the conſtitution; not his eſtate or his chattels: and the beſt property of the ſtate is the induſtry, talents, and attachment of the people; not the lands they poſſeſs. The feudal idea of regulating political meaſures, by portions of land, to which the inhabitants were only appendages, is not yet diſcarded. Grave ſenators utter the abſurdities, that foreſts, fields, and blades of graſs may be repreſented by men. When the graſs is conſumed by cattle; and thoſe cattle by men—muſt not men be repreſented? Perhaps they may, as containing the graſs. The poſſeſſion of property, is of itſelf a ſufficient advantage; and it is unjuſt and impolitic to add to the advantage, at the expenſe of labour, induſtry, and talents; which are the beſt and moſt valuable reſources of every community! Nothing but a civil offence or crime, ſhould exclude a citizen the privilege of ſuf-

frage in the appointment of legiſlators and magiſtrates, who are to determine on his happineſs and life. It is this circumſtance which gives attachment and public ſpirit to a whole people: the lands and riches of the country may be divided among a few of its inhabitants. Suffrages and property have no more connection, than ſuffrages and nobility, or ſuffrages and military rank.

The power of appointing governors by ſuffrage, does not imply or require an equality in perſonal conſideration, or in property. It is founded in the reaſonableneſs of having a choice, where appointments may reſtrain our public actions, and diſpoſe of our property and lives. All men, on ſuch occaſions, ſhould be conſidered as equal, and entitled ſtrictly to equal conſideration; for all commit all into the hands of government. The property and talents of individuals may be unequal, and private advantages or diſadvantages ariſe from them; but in all intercourſes of the community with government, every citizen is equally an unit; and every violation of this equality, whatever the ſtate be denominated, is an approach to deſpotiſm.

ANECDOTE *of* PETER *the* CRUEL.

IN the days of Peter the Third of Caſtile, a canon of the cathedral of Seville, affected in his dreſs, and particularly in his ſhoes, could not find a workman to his liking. An unfortunate ſhoemaker, to whom he applied, after quitting many others, having brought him a pair of ſhoes, not made to pleaſe his taſte, the canon became furious, and ſeizing one of the tools of the ſhoemaker, gave him with it ſo many blows upon the head, as laid him dead upon the floor. The unhappy man left a widow, four daughters, and a ſon fourteen years of age, the eldeſt of the indigent family. They made their complaints to the chapter: the canon was proſecuted, and condemned *not to appear in the choir for a year*. The young ſhoemaker having attained to man's eſtate, was ſcarcely able to get a livelihood, and, overwhelmed with wretchedneſs, ſat down, on the day of a proceſſion, at the door of the cathedral of Seville, *in* the moment the proceſſion paſſed by. Amongſt the other canons, he perceived the murderer of his father. At the ſight of this man, filial affection, rage, and deſpair, got ſo far the better of his reaſon, that he fell furiouſly upon the prieſt, and ſtabbed him to the heart. The young man was ſeized, convicted of the crime, and immediately condemned to be quartered alive. Peter, whom we call the Cruel, and whom the Spaniards, with more reaſon, call the Lover of Juſtice, was then at Seville. The affair came to his knowledge; and, after learning the particulars, he determined to be himſelf the judge of the young ſhoemaker. When he proceeded to give judgment, he firſt annulled the ſentence, juſt pronounced by the clergy; and after aſking the young man of what profeſſion he was, "I forbid you, ſaid he, to make ſhoes for a year to come."

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

INTRODUCTION *to a Charge Delivered to a* GRAND JURY *for the county of* Philadelphia, *March 7th.* 1791. *By* ENOCH EDWARDS *Esq.* Preſident *of the Court of Quarter-Seſſions.*

GENTLEMEN *of the* GRAND JURY,

AS mankind became civilized, it was found neceſſary, for the regulation of every Government, to eſtabliſh a ſyſtem of Laws; and on the chaſte and upright adminiſtration of thoſe laws muſt, in a great meaſure, depend the proſperity of the citizens of any community. Every individual of a commonwealth, as he has a natural right to claim, ſo he ought to enjoy, the undiſturbed right of purſuing and obtaining happineſs; for unleſs the aid of civil government be conveniently placed, within the reach of the moſt feeble and indigent inhabitant, the depravity of human nature is ſuch, that no obligations ariſing from a ſenſe of religion, from the ties of honour, or the dictates of conſcience will ever prove ſufficient barriers, to defend the weak againſt oppreſſion of the more powerful.

In order, therefore, to ſecure the advantages which the municipal law of any country is calculated to afford, and avoid that perpetual anarchy which the want of proper regulations, founded on juſtice and wiſdom, muſt daily produce, PUNISHMENTS have hitherto been deemed abſolutely neceſſary.

Puniſhments, as generally exerciſed throughout the civilized part of the world at this time, clearly evince, that in no part of the juriſprudence of any country has there been leſs attention paid to principles of juſtice or humanity; even in England, where they boaſt of the equity and mildneſs of their legal inſtitutions, and where they alledge that neither racks, tortures, nor extorted confeſſions were ever acknowledged to be any part of their laws, yet their books are crowded with penal ſtatutes, which appear to have reſulted more from the barbarous dictates of revenge, than from any ſerious and humane deſire to reform offenders. To inflict the puniſhment of death alike on perſons guilty of treaſon, of murder, or of larceny, in ſtealing a trifle above the value of twelve-pence, argues a great want of wiſdom, juſtice, or power in any government.

The early ſettlers of this country, influenced and guided by the wiſdom of their benevolent patron, William Penn, that lover of juſtice—who was near a century before many of his wiſeſt countrymen, in ſuggeſting ideas of religious, civil, and political liberty, and in carrying thoſe ideas into effect, viewed with horror the penal laws of the country from which he ſprang.

In the grant which he received from King Charles the ſecond, the penal as well as civil laws were extended to this country, but that charter of privileges which he gave the people, and all the acts reſpecting puniſhments, to which he ever gave his ſanction, are ſo many immediate inroads on that ſyſtematic rigour, violence, and injuſtice which were diſplayed in the laws of his native country.

To the mild and juſt principles introduced at that time, we may in a great meaſure aſcribe the rapid growth of his province, in numbers and reputation; for while the inhabitants of ſome of the eaſtern colonies, who had emancipated themſelves, by emigration from Britiſh tyranny, impoſed ſtill greater ſeverities on thoſe who differed from them in religious ſentiments; and while the ſouthern colonies were torn by diſtractions ariſing from the like, and other cauſes, Pennſylvania opened a peaceful aſylum to all men, on no harder conditions than that they ſhould be orderly members of ſociety. Our firſt founder and great legiſlator did not, like the celebrated Locke, weave together a ſyſtem of laws too finely ſpun to bear its own weight; nor, like many others, attempt to form a conſtitution for men, as they ought to be, but, like the immortal Solon, he made a government for men as they really are. It is well known that the conſtitution framed by Mr. Locke for South-Carolina, with all its laboured accuracies and nice diſtinctions, was only calculated to create diſſentions, from the impracticability of its execution, while the ſolid materials of the conſtitution framed by our immortal Penn have remained, and now form a part of the ever durable ſtamina, which have entered into, and compoſe the free conſtitutions of this great empire. The ſeeds of liberty, then planted in the ſoil of Pennſylvania, equally a ſtranger to civilization and oppreſſion, grew with luxuriance, and ſpread their towering branches in every direction. They contained thoſe very principles on which were founded the late memorable revolution. This ſtate was happily ſituated to be a grand auxiliary in that great event. Her wealth, her ſtrength, her wiſdom gave that energy without which America might at laſt have bowed down under the foot of the powerful tyrant who aſſailed her liberties, and before France, our good ally, had caught that ſacred flame which now blazes in Europe, and forbodes the deſtruction of deſpotiſm in every part of the world.

Permit me here to indulge a hope, that, to the legiſlature of Pennſylvania may be reſerved the glory of bringing to perfection that happy reform of the code of penal laws, which her ſucceſsful attempts hitherto, have diſcovered her wiſh to accompliſh—a noble and magnanimous work! which I hope will yet be brought to ſuch admirable exactneſs, as to form ſomething like a ſcale, on which, conſpicuous as the different coloursof the rain-bow, ſhall be marked every ſhade of guilt, from the ſmalleſt publick vice to crimes of the deepeſt die, together with a correſponding table of puniſhments; and that, by proportioning puniſhments to crimes, and making the reformation of criminals the object of puniſhment, we ſhall introduce a new mode of thinking and acting upon this ſubject.*

* Since the delivery of this charge, the author has had the pleaſure of both hearing and *obſerving*, that crimes of all kinds have ſenſibly diminiſhed in Pennſylvania, ſince *ſolitude* and *labour* have been ſubſtituted in the room of publick and capital puniſhments. The reaſon is obvious, impriſonment, labour, and ſolitude are conſidered as greater evils than certain death. That this is really the caſe has been illuſtrated by a recent inſtance in New-Spain. A captain of a veſſel, who had been convicted of ſmuggling, was condemned to work in the mines of Peru for life. As ſoon as this ſentence was pronounced upon him, he dropped down in the preſence of his judge, and inſtantly expired. No effect of a ſimilar kind, from the ſentence of death being

It is only in a country like this, where we are all equally free, that so great an enterprize can be attempted, with any proſpect of ſucceſs. Here the mind is at full liberty, not only to inveſtigate knowledge in every ſcience, but to improve ſuch ſyſtems, as appear to have already arrived at a ſeeming degree of perfection.

Here are no different orders of men, no ancient prejudices, no arbitrary prerogatives, no ridiculous or ſlaviſh habits to ſhackle the human underſtanding. In contemplating the effects of evil habits, we may diſcover a ſingular inſtance of its baneful effects, in no leſs a man than the late Sir William Blackſtone, who, in writing upon the law of retaliation ſays, "If a nobleman ſtrikes a peaſant, all mankind will ſee, that if a court of juſtice awards a return of the blow, it will be more than a juſt compenſation"—A ſentiment this which diſgraces the page on which it is written—All mankind, thank God, have not yet felt ſuch pernicious effects of a bad habit of thinking—the citizens of a free commonwealth muſt be excuſed, if they cannot, like Sir William and the ſubjects of a monarch, tamely conſent to exalt one rank of fellow-men at the humiliating expence of debaſing themſelves.

It is no wonder, therefore, that in a country where enlightened minds, like this great judge, ſhould be confined, that a reviſion of the penal laws (which he ſeems to regret,) cannot be obtained once in an hundred years.

Engliſhmen, therefore, who aſcribe their advantages to the mildneſs and lenity of their laws in general, miſtake the cauſe of their own happineſs. They muſt look to another ſource for the privileges they boaſt of, I mean the trial by jury. Here too much cannot be ſaid to the honour of the memory of thoſe Engliſh patriots, who, at the expence of their blood and treaſure, have, through every difficulty, brought to perfection, and delivered over to their poſterity, a right which forms a ſtrong bulwark of defence againſt bad kings or bad laws. By this mode of trial no man can ever be declared guilty of any offence, until, on the oaths or affirmations of at leaſt twelve of his equals, he ſtands charged of a particular crime or miſdemeanour, he is then allowed a ſpeedy trial, as well as ſufficient time to make all the defence in his power. He has the ſame advantage of witneſſes that his proſecutor has, (and in this country council too) all which ſolemn proceedings are carried on, and conducted under the impartial eye of an independent court, which takes care to aſſign the priſoner a council, if poverty has put it out of his power to employ one ; and before he can be convicted, twelve more of his neighbours, againſt whom he cannot have the leaſt objection, or ſlighteſt ſuſpicion, on a full and fair hearing in open court, muſt declare him guilty.

Thus is this wonderful inſtitution ingeniouſly calculated to detect guilt, and protect innocence. It ſteps in between an injured country

pronounced upon a criminal, has ever, I believe, been known in any country. The reaſon of this is likewiſe obvious. There are few men who are condemned to die, that do not cheriſh hopes of a pardon.

It is to be hoped, that experience will ſoon correct the vulgar errors upon the ſubject of penal laws, which have been borrowed from the ariſtocratic and monarchical laws of Great-Britain, and, in a little while, baniſh the abſurd and unchriſtian puniſhment of death from the criminal juriſprudence of the United States.

and a bold offender, between arbitrary power and the right of an individual, and, on each ſide, equally confounds every attempt at injuſtice; and thereby makes an Engliſhman freer than his neighbours, and an American the freeſt man on the globe.

The particular part of duty aſſigned to you, as a grand jury, is to enquire into the grounds of every charge exhibited againſt any perſon, for offences committed, within the body of this county, againſt the commonwealth.

In performing this, you have it in your power to ſay, that no man ſhall be put to the pain, riſque, and expence of a publick trial, unleſs there are the moſt probable grounds of his guilt; as well as the power to ſay, that no perſon, whoſe guilt may come to your knowledge, ſhall go unpreſented, though he may eſcape the vigilance of the magiſtrate to bind him over, or commit him for trial.—And, in doing this, nothing but the ſtrongeſt appearance of criminality can juſtify the finding a bill; for, although you eſſentially ſerve the State, by bring the moſt flagitious offender to a publick trial, yet, you as eſſentially ſerve her by ſaving the reputation of any one of her innocent citizens, who may be unjuſtly proſecuted.

But great care ſhould be taken not to ſuffer this idea to go ſo far, as unwarily to have an improper effect; for a miſapplied humanity, in the adminiſtration of juſtice, may be as miſchievous, as an ill-directed conſcience in religion, by defeating the very end of its application. An improper bias on the minds of a jury, though the particular ſituation of the accuſed renders him a real object of compaſſion, may be attended with the worſt of conſequences. When the evidence is doubtful, a jury may ſafely lean to his ſide, but when the facts are clear, their integrity calls on them, amidſt every emotion of compaſſion, to find the bill. Juſtice, not mercy, is the province of a jury. The government has wiſely reſerved the latter to be exerciſed (after all circumſtances are fully aſcertained) by the ſupreme magiſtrate, in whoſe breaſt is lodged a conſtitutional ſtore of mercy, with an unbounded power of extending it to all thoſe, who may, or even who may not, be entitled to this laſt act of grace; and certainly it is better that all offenders ſhould receive pardon from him, than that, by the miſtaken tenderneſs of a jury, the operations of the laws ſhould be ſtifled, on their road to juſtice.

ACCOUNT *of an extraordinary* FAMILY, *reſiding in the Town of* YARMOUTH, (CAPE COD.)

IN this place there is a man, by the name of Homer, who has nine ſons: Seven of them are arrived at man's eſtate, and the ſhorteſt of the ſeven is ſix feet and four inches in height. The other two are young, but appear to be conſtructed on the ſame ſcale with their brethren, and promiſe to riſe to the ſame magnitude. Theſe brethren are all full habited men, and conſtantly employed at ſea. There are alſo two ſiſters, more moderate in ſize. Quere—Does not this parent deſerve a penſion?

RESULT *of a Courſe of* AGRICULTURAL EXPERIMENTS, *made with a view to diſcover the beſt Rotation of* CROPS.

To the PHILADELPHIA SOCIETY for Promoting AGRICULTURE.

GENTLEMEN,

STRUCK with the propriety and importance of the queſtion propoſed by your ſociety, to diſcover the beſt rotation of crops; I have been induced to make a variety of experiments to aſcertain this point. I now beg leave to ſubmit them to your conſideration, together with ſome particular and general obſervations on the ſubject.

Exp.	1784.	1785.	1786.	1787.	1788.	1789.	1790.
I.	Spring Barley.	Clover.	Clover.	Paſture.	Paſture.	Spring Barley.	Wheat.
II.	Corn.	Spr. Barley & Clov.	Clover.	Clover.	Clov. & Paſture.	Paſture.	Winter Barley.
III.	Corn.	Rye.	Corn.	Buckwheat.	Spring Barley.	W. Bar. B. wheat & Clov.	Clover.
IV.	Corn.	Rye.	Corn.	Potatoes.	Spring Barley.	Winter Barley.	Wheat & Clover.
V.	Rye.	Corn.	Wheat.	Corn.	Pumpkins.	Spring Barley.	Wheat.
VI.	Rye.	Corn.	Wheat.	Corn.	Potatoes.	Spring Barley.	Wheat.
VII.	Rye.	Corn.	Wheat.	Corn.	Flax & Turnips.	Spring Barley.	Wheat.
VIII.	Potatoes.	Spr. Bar. & Clov.	Clover.	Clover.	Spring Barley.	Potatoes.	Flax, Turnips & Clov.
IX.	Potatoes.	Spr. Bar. & Clov.	Clover.	Clover.	Potatoes.	Potatoes.	Flax, Turnips & Clov.
X.	Wheat.	Corn.	Oats.	Paſture.	Rye.	Corn.	Potatoes & Wheat.
XI.	Corn.	Corn.	Spr. Bar. & Clov.	Clover.	Clover.	Paſture.	Winter Barley.
XII.	Corn.	Wheat.	Potatoes.	Spr. Bar. & Clov.	Clover.	Clover.	Sring Bar. & Clover.
XIII.	Corn.	Wheat.	Potatoes.	Spr. Bar. & Clov.	Clover.	Clover.	Wheat.
XIV.	Paſture.	Paſture.	Oats.	Corn.	Corn.	Spring Barley.	Wheat.

EXPERIMENT, No. I.

FIELD, fifteen acres; ſoil, a light loam, full of garlick, and much exhauſted. Winter-fallowed, and in April, 1784, ſpread ten loads of ſtable manure on the acre; plowed the manure under, and ſowed ſpring barley and clover. In May, 1784, the clover not promiſing a crop, I expected to renew it by the uſe of gypſum; ſtrewed ſix buſhels to the

acre, over the field, except the width of twenty feet, through the middle of the field. St. John's-wort and mullein, with other weeds, had taken such poſſeſſion of the ground, that, although this manure produced a great luxuriancy of graſs, yet, being full of weeds, it did not anſwer for hay, and therefore, was paſtured until October, 1738; the field was then ploughed eight inches deep, with a ſtrong three-horſe Dutch plough, for a winter fallow. In April, 1789, it was well harrowed, and croſs-plowed four inches deep with a light two-horſe plough, leaving the ſod at the bottom, and ſowed with ſpring barley. Where the gypſum had been put, and in ſome places where the ground was ſtrong, the crop was ſo rank as to lodge: immediately after harveſt the ſtubble was ploughed under, and early in September was ploughed a ſecond time, and ſown with wheat; the clover ſod being perfectly rotted, and intimately mixed with the ſoil, afforded a ſtrong nouriſhment to the crop—produce twenty-five buſhels to the acre.

Experiment 2.

Field, ſix acres; ſoil, a light loam, perfectly exhauſted, and full of garlick. In this experiment, a ſmall quantity of timothy ſeed was mixed with the clover, and ſown with the ſpring barley.—After the ſecond year, the clover being almoſt deſtroyed, the timothy ſupplied its place, and afforded a great addition to the hay and paſture. In September, 1789, the clover lea was ploughed eight inches deep; the ground being very mellow, it was harrowed along the furrow, with a large brake harrow of thirty teeth; winter barley was then ſowed and harrowed in. The laſt winter was wet and open, and therefore ſevere on the grain, and yet this field turned out better than moſt in the neighbourhood. From my obſervations on this crop, I believe that it is better huſbandry to croſs plough, as in experiment No. 1. than to truſt to the harrow alone. To continue clover more than three years is not profitable—the fourth year, the clover was full of weeds.

Experiment 3.

Field, eight acres; ſoil, cold clay, and wet—corn, rye, corn, buckwheat, is bad huſbandry, except, as in the preſent caſe, intended merely to make manure—Coming in poſſeſſion of a large farm, every part of which was exhauſted, I could only manure a part of it at one time, and therefore it was good management to procure any produce for the ſake of wintering of cattle to make manure. November 1787, the buckwheat ſtubble was ploughed, and in April 1788, the field was covered with fifteen loads of dung to the acre, and ſown with ſpring barley—the crop twenty buſhels to the acre. After two ploughings, winter barley was ſown, which did not produce more than ten buſhels to the acre. Immediately after harveſt, put in buckwheat, clover, and timothy; in April laſt, ſix buſhels of gypſum per acre were ſtrewed over the young clover—at harveſt, the produce three tons of good hay to the acre.

Experiment 4.

Field, ſix acres; ſoil, clay, with a ſmall quantity of gravel. In April 1790, this field was ſown with clover ſeed and ſtrewed with ſix

bushels of gypsum to the acre, on the young wheat—the clover at present looks well.

Experiment 5, 6, *and* 7,

Were made on a light loam, to discover the best preparatory crop to grain. The result was greatly in favour of the potatoes.

Experiment 8.

Field, two acres; soil, loam with some clay.—In November, 1787, the clover lea was ploughed eight inches deep. In April 1788, it was well harrowed, and sown with spring barley, the crop very poor, evidently owing to the want of soil. Winter-fallowed, and in 1789, it was planted with potatoes. This year it produced two valuable crops, one of flax, and the other turnips.

Experiment 9.

Field, one acre; soil, loam, with some clay.—In May, 1788, the clover lea was covered with stable manure, and ploughed under five inches deep; planted potatoes under every third furrow; the crop at first appeared promising, but afterwards grass took place, and the sod, not being rotted, the plough could not be used, besides, the grass came up in the interstices between the potatoes in the rows—at harvest the potatoes were numerous, but so small, as not in general to be merchantable. I am perfectly satisfied, that, to have a good crop of any vegetable, it is necessary to have the ground in the most meliorated state possible.

Experiment 10.

Field, ten acres; soil, light loam. In 1789, after having secured the tops and blades of the corn, and the corn being taken to the barn in the husks, the stalks were cut at the ground, and taken into the barn-yard to make manure. The field was ploughed the first week in December, and, in May, 1790, ploughed a second time, and eight acres planted with potatoes. In October, the potatoes were gathered, and the vines being collected with a light harrow were hauled into the barn-yard—the ground was then ploughed and sown with wheat, which at present looks well. The remaining two acres were covered with dung, and ploughed twice during the summer to prepare it for wheat, which was sown at the same time with the potatoe ground. This experiment was intended to discover whether potatoes, or a clean summer fallow, was the best preparative to a grain crop. At this time, the potatoe ground has the best appearance. I examined some of the plants of wheat, while in the seed leaf, and found their roots to extend six and eight inches; an evident mark of the advantages of deep ploughing, and having your ground in good tilth.

Experiment. 11.

Field, six acres; soil, light loam. The clover, in 1787, produced two good crops; in 1788, one crop and pasture; in 1789, excellent pasture for cattle, sheep, and hogs, until September, when it was ploughed eight inches deep, and, after being well harrowed, it was sown with winter barley—the crop, twenty-five bushels to the acre.

immediately after harveſt, the ſtubble was ploughed under, and, in October, was again ploughed, and ſown with wheat—the crop has a very promiſing appearance.

Experiment 12.

Field, one acre; ſoil, loam, a little wet, with a clay bottom. In 1788, produced two excellent crops of hay, and nearly as good the year following. In October, the clover lea was ploughed four inches deep, the ſod crumbling to pieces before the plough; after being well harrowed it was ſown with winter barley; a wet, open winter, deſtroyed ſo much of the crop, that I was induced to plough the ground in April, and to ſow ſpring barley and clover—the barley as good as moſt this ſeaſon—the clover looks well.

Experiment 13.

A field of the ſize and quantity of the laſt experiment, and treated in a ſimilar manner, except that it was ſown with wheat—the crop was not injured by the winter, and produced twenty buſhels to the acre. Wheat appears a hardier grain than barley, and, therefore, ſhould have a preference where a farmer is under the neceſſity of ſowing late.

Experiment 14.

Field, ſix acres; ſoil, wet loam. After removing the corn-ſtalks into the barn-yard, winter-fallowed the ground, and in April 1789, ploughed in twenty loads of dung to the acre, for ſpring barley. During the ſummer I added three acres of freſh land taken in from an adjoining wood, and which had been cleared the preceding winter. Soil, the ſame as the above ſix acres, covered with a rich black mould; ploughed this new ground three times. In September, the old and new ground were ſown the ſame day, with wheat; during the autumn both crops appeared promiſing; the following ſpring the three acres were almoſt totally deſtroyed by a long wet winter. At harveſt the old ground produced twenty-five buſhels to the acre; the new ground not ſix. This field having an under ſtratum of clay, and the roots of the trees preventing a proper depth of ploughing, occaſioned the water to ſtagnate about the roots of the wheat—in the old field a depth of ploughing of eight inches prevented this miſchief. The principal object of this experiment was to diſcover, whether old exhauſted fields, under proper management, would not produce equal to the beſt new ground. In this inſtance the wet ſeaſon was againſt the experiment.

We may obſerve, with great truth, that the uncertainty of the ſeaſons, and the length of time required to make agricultural experiments, renders it difficult to make them with accuracy. In adopting and purſuing the rotation of crops founded upon the experiments now recited, it will be neceſſary to attend ſtrictly to ſome points on which the ſucceſs of the rotation depends.

1ſt. To winter-fallow for the ſpring crops, ploughing at leaſt eight inches deep.

2d. To cover your potatoe and flax ground with twenty loads of your beſt manure to the acre, to be ploughed into the ground in A-

pril, and on planting your potatoes, to put your half decayed corn-ſtalks, or any other traſh, in the furrows.

3d. In breaking up your clover lea, to be attentive to turning the graſs ſod as much as poſſible on its back. This is beſt effected by trench ploughing, one plough following another in the ſame track; by this method there is ſufficient nouriſhment provided for the preſent crop, and the ſod becomes rotten before next ſeaſon, for the future crop.

As the natural ſtrength of the ſoil is exhauſted, by conſtant cropping, without manure, and as the horſes, cows, and other ſtock, which any farm can maintain within itſelf, will not afford a ſufficiency of manure for an annual ſupply to the whole farm. We have therefore been induced to conſider the propoſition of your very uſeful ſociety, in its moſt extenſive ſenſe, as intended to acquire a knowledge of a rotation of crops calculated to afford—

1ſt. The greateſt number of profitable crops—

2d. The greateſt quantity of fodder to winter cattle—

3d. The greateſt length of time between two manurings of the ſame field; and—

4th. Such a variety of crops as may not interfere with one another, but, by coming in regular ſucceſſion, may afford the farmer and his family the moſt conſtant employ.

No one of the rotation of crops, which I have mentioned, will anſwer theſe objects, and therefore cannot merit the attention of the ſociety.—Uninformed, and deſtitute of proper guides, I made theſe experiments to diſcover the truth; and as they have led to the knowledge of a rotation of crops, which is perfectly ſatisfactory to myſelf, I thought it neceſſary to ſubmit the whole to your conſideration, to enable you to judge of the foundation of that rotation which I now offer.

Rotation of Crops.

1, Indian corn; 2, potatoes and flax; 3, wheat; 4, winter barley, and after the barley, buckwheat, with clover and timothy; 5, clover, two crops for hay; 6, clover, one crop for hay and paſture; 7, paſture; 8, wheat; 9, winter barley.

This plan conſtitutes my preſent mode of farming; and the ſucceſs attending it, leaves no room to doubt of its ſuperior advantage. To purſue it to the greateſt poſſible profit, within the ability of one family—the farm ſhould conſiſt of 180 acres of land, ſubject to this rotation, beſides woodland, orchard, &c. &c. A farm thus regulated would produce annually—

20 acres of Indian corn.
10 acres of potatoes.
10 acres of flax.
40 acres of wheat.
40 acres of winter barley.
20 acres of clover, two crops.
20 acres of clover, one crop, and paſture until November.
20 acres of clover, paſture until September.
20 acres of buckwheat, with clover on the barley ſtubble.

Indian corn is a valuable crop on account of its grain: it is alſo valuable on account of the very nouriſhing food afforded by its tops, cut as rye-ſtraw, and mixed with potatoes. I have long been in the practice of making potatoes a principal food for my horſes and cattle. Our ſheep and hogs will fatten rapidly on them; for the latter they ſhould be boiled. Flax conſtitutes a valuable article, too much neglected in our country. An annual produce of eighty acres of wheat and barley, and forty acres of the beſt clover and timothy hay, out of one hundred and eighty acres, under cultivation, muſt be eſteemed good farming. This produce would enable a farmer to winter fifty head of ſtock, beſides ſheep; by which, and a proper ſyſtem of barn-yard management, he might every year make five hundred loads of good manure. I have found great advantage in keeping the milch cows, hogs, and ſheep, in the yard, during the ſummer; ſometimes giving them clover, cut green; and at all times, during the year, bringing home every kind of traſh which will make manure; on this account, the corn-ſtalks and potatoe-vines are very uſeful. Leaving a large ſurface of theſe ſubſtances expoſed, during the winter, in the barn-yard, the cold would prevent them from becoming manure; therefore, the firſt week in December, or earlier, if neceſſary, the yards ſhould be cleaned up, and the half decayed weeds and traſh, of every kind, put in a heap near the field you intend to manure. I have been particular on the ſubject of manure, becauſe the ſucceſs of the rotation depends on a full ſupply of it.

Turnips, rye, and oats, are not mentioned, becauſe the ſeverity of our winters renders the firſt an improper crop for the farmer; beſides, they are by no means equal to the potatoe, for the feeding of cattle. Rye and oats are not of equal value with wheat and corn, and therefore a preference is given to the latter.

One object of a rotation of crops is, to give conſtant and ſteady employ to the farmer and his family, without ſuffering one buſineſs to interfere with another. The rotation propoſed will anſwer this intention. Flax, corn, and potatoes, will occupy the months of April and May. The firſt hay-harveſt, the month of June; barley and wheat in July. Barley is naturally earlier than wheat, and being ſown earlier, it may be got out of the harveſt field before the wheat is fit to be cut. After harveſt, comes the feeding for buckwheat and graſs; the ſecond hay harveſt; feeding for barley and wheat; winter fallowing, and, during the ſeverity of winter, thraſhing out grain.

On account of the time and ſtock required to conduct a farm, ſubject to the rotation of crops now propoſed, it muſt appear evident, that it is not calculated for a poor tenantry, but for an independent yeomanry—"

"The improved ſyſtem of Engliſh huſbandry, ſolely conſiſts in ſubſtituting a crop of clover, in the place of an unproductive fallow.

As frequent manuring is a very expenſive operation in agriculture, the farmers in England were formerly in the practice, after taking two or three crops from a field, to leave it waſte for ſeveral years; by which a poor paſture was furniſhed for their cattle, and the vigour of the ſoil was, in a ſmall degree, renewed by an annual decay of

weeds. This is, at present, the plan of conducting the farms in many parts of that country, and is universally the case in this.

By substituting clover for an unproductive fallow, the farmer procures a valuable crop of hay, and the most luxuriant pasture, besides which, the ground becomes meliorated for a crop of wheat. The foundation of the improved English method of husbandry, and the foundation of the rotation of crops reccommended to the society, is the same.

If the object of the society was merely to have it ascertained, by a course of experiments, whether an exact imitation of the English mode of farming would be successful in this country, the experiment is a complete answer in favor of such question—Potatoes, barley, clover, clover, wheat, is one of the most approved courses of crops, in that country. The rotation of crops which I have recommended to the patronage of the society, I think superior to any hitherto practised, and that on two accounts;—

1st. Because, upon breaking up the clover lea, in the method proposed, two equally valuable crops of winter grain are procured, in the place of one, according to the English mode of farming; and

2dly. Because, by the plan proposed, a greater number of valuable crops is procured, and also a greater length of time is acquired between the periods of manuring, which is a very expensive, but highly necessary part of farming.

Seven years of close and attentive observation, enabled me to lay the foregoing experiments before the society.

GEORGE LOGAN.

Stenton, February 28, 1791.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

ANECDOTE *of* STERNE *and a* PENNSYLVANIAN LADY.

WHEN Mrs. F—— was in England, she attended York races, where she met with the celebrated Laurence Sterne. He rode up to the side of the coach, and accosted her, "Well, madam, which horse do you bet upon?—"Sir," said she, "if you can tell me which is the worst horse, I will bet upon that."—"But why, madam," said Sterne, "do you make so strange a choice?—"Because" replied the lady, "you know, *the race is not to the swift, nor the battle to the strong*"

Sterne was so much pleased with the reply, that he went home, and wrote, from that text, his much admired sermon, entitled, "Time and Chance."

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

HISTORY *of the* AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

(Continued from page 92.)

1776. WE ſhall ſuſpend our further account of the military operations of this campaign, till we have taken a general view of the political ſentiments which were at this time prevalent in America, and eventually produced that memorable declaration of Congreſs, which totally changed the original grounds of the conteſt with Britain, and formed the colonies into an independent empire, by the name of the United States of America.

Although the firſt ſettlers of the American colonies had been virtually exiled from their native country, by being denied the rights of men; and had at their own expence purchaſed, from the Indian proprietors, an uncultivated country, which they afterwards improved, till it was become ſo great and flouriſhing, as to be able to enter into a ſerious conteſt with the moſt powerful nation upon earth; yet they had hitherto continued in a ſtate of dependence on the mother country. The ſeveral provinces allowed the crown a negative on their laws, permitted Great Britain to enjoy a monopoly of their trade, and granted, from time to time, ſuch ſupplies of men and money, as, in their opinion, the public ſervice and the common intereſt of both countries required. Theſe advantages Britain claimed as an equivalent for her ſuppoſed protection of the colonies, and they long acquieſced in the juſtice of the claim.

We have already ſeen that the Britiſh parliament at length aſſumed the power of taxing the colonies, and the right of binding them in all caſes. To obtain a redreſs of theſe grievances the Americans had taken up arms, reſolving to lay them down whenever the parliament ſhould relinquiſh its newly aſſumed powers, and leave the colonies in their former ſituation, to be taxed by their own repreſentatives. The views of the generality of the people, at the beginning of the conteſt, were extended no further. Some there were, no doubt, whoſe aims were directed to a greater object; but theſe did not venture openly to avow their ſentiments, convinced that if an idea of independence were known to be in contemplation, a large majority of the people would be decidedly oppoſed to the meaſure, and, perhaps, would not even perſevere in endeavouring to obtain a redreſs of what were on all hands allowed to be grievances. Such were the ſentiments of the generality of the Americans in 1775. But all remonſtrance to the crown having proved vain, the moſt humble, dutiful, and reaſonable petitions not having obtained even an anſwer, the Britiſh parliament having determined to reduce the colonies to unconditional ſubmiſſion, and to employ, for that purpoſe, a numerous hoſt of foreign hirelings, and of blood-thirſty ſavages, the feelings of the Americans were roufed, and a reconciliation, as it became every day more difficult to be brought about, ſo it was leſs eagerly ſought after.

They now recurred to first principles, and freely examined the relative duties subsisting between kings, or governors, and their subjects. The result of this enquiry was, that government is instituted for the purpose of promoting the happiness of mankind; that when, from the arbitrary conduct of those by whom it is administred, it ceases to produce this effect, it is no longer binding on the people; and that protection ceasing, on the part of the ruler, allegiance from the subject is no longer due. The promulgation of such opinions as these prepared the people for the reception of the resolve of congress, passed on the 15th. of May, for abolishing all allegiance to the crown of Great Britain, and recommending the establishment of governments, founded on the authority of the people, in the several colonies. The necessity of this measure was the more evident, as the British parliament had, by their prohibitory act, declared the colonies to be in open rebellion, and to be no longer under the protection of the mother country.

This bold proposal was well received by the assemblies of all the colonies, those of Pennsylvania and Maryland excepted. The delegates in congress from both those colonies opposed the establishment of a new government, and the declaration of independeney, when it was first moved for in congress; but upon an appeal to the people at large, and through the active zeal of a few leading whigs, the question for independence was carried in a general convention of the people of Pennsylvania, and the delegation of that colony was changed. In Maryland, the delegates had been instructed, by a majority of seven counties to four, to oppose the question of independency in congress; they accordingly gave their votes against it, and withdrew from that assembly. But the Marylanders finding that a perseverance in this conduct would effectually separate them from the other colonies, instructed their delegates to resume their seats in congress, and to act there in such manner as they should think most conducive to the interest of their country. This completed the union of the colonies.

In bringing about this extraordinary revolution of sentiment, in the minds of the Americans, the pen, the press, and the pulpit exerted their influence, and were of the utmost service.

It was contended, by those who were still attached to the ancient forms of government, that the colonies were too weak, and must ultimately be crushed by the superior force of Britain; that supposing independence attainable, still the propriety of the measure was questionable. It would evidently be attended with many inconveniencies. Besides that many political and commercial advantages, arising from their connection with Great Britain, would be sacrificed, the colonies would, in all probability, experience the dreadful effects of internal discord, if the power of the common sovereign, to balance and regulate their various and discordant interests, were abolished. They therefore declared themselves unwilling to embark in a measure, calculated to cut off all possibility of what they had so much at heart, an accommodation with the mother country.

On the other hand, it was contended, with an extraordinary degree of spirit, and great force of argument, that the colonies united had a fair prospect of success; that they had taken up arms to se-

cure their liberties, and that to lay them down before that ſecurity had been obtained, would be an acknowledgement, either that their firſt reſiſtance was a cauſeleſs rebellion, or that they were too cowardly to perſevere in a laudable oppoſition to arbitrary meaſures. The commercial advantages reſulting from their connection with Great Britain, on which ſome laid ſo much ſtreſs, were not well founded; on the contrary, that nation had reſtricted and monopolized the whole trade of the colonies, and thereby cramped their natural growth. A reconciliation, on terms of dependence, would involve America in a continual ſcene of domeſtic troubles; Britain would again encroach upon the rights of the colonies, and they would again betake themſelves to reſiſtance, as being the only remedy to which they could recur. The negative power veſted in the crown, independent of the interference of parliament, would be ſufficient to baffle every beneficial ſcheme, that might be propoſed.

Nature, it was urged, never intended that a vaſt continent, in which were combined every deſirable variety of climate and ſoil, and which was rapidly advancing to wealth and greatneſs, ſhould be held in ſubjection by a ſmall and diſtant iſland. The abſurdity of ſailing three thouſand miles, in order to receive directions from ſtrangers for the management of their domeſtic concerns, was obvious to all. It would certainly be more convenient, more rational, and more honourable, that, in a country ſo extenſive, the ſeat of government ſhould be at home, and that the people ſhould be governed by men of their own choice, acting under conſtitutions which ſhould be preſcribed by the community at large, and which ſhould define the powers of government and the rights of the people, in ſuch a manner as to eſtabliſh juſtice, harmony, and equal liberty.

It was ſaid further, that Britain had employed foreign troops for the purpoſe of ſubjugating the colonies; and, conſequently, that America had a right to look for foreign aid, wherever it could be obtained. But this they could not hope for, while their only object was a reconciliation with Great Britain; whereas, if they ſhould declare themſelves an independent nation, and evince a diſpoſition to perſevere ſtrenuouſly in breaking off, for ever, their connection with Britain, they would undoubtedly be ſupported, by thoſe European powers, who wiſhed to humble the pride and ſtrength of a haughty and formidable rival. Thoſe nations would moreover be intereſted in another way in the eſtabliſhment of American independence—They would then come in for a ſhare of that valuable commerce which had long been monopolized by Great Britain, and which was juſtly conſidered as one great ſource of that nation's wealth and power.

Several writers placed the advantages of independence in various points of view. Among theſe Thomas Paine, in a pamphlet, under the ſignature of Common Senſe, held the moſt diſtinguiſhed rank. The ſtile, manner, and language of this performance were calculated to intereſt the paſſions, and to rouſe all the active powers of the human mind. With the view of operating on the ſentiments of a religious people, ſcripture was preſſed into his ſervice, and the powers, and even the name of a king were rendered odious in the eyes of the numerous coloniſts who had read and ſtudied the hiſtory of the Jews, as

recorded in the Old Testament. The folly of that people in revolting from a government, instituted by heaven itself, and the oppressions to which they were subjected in consequence of their lusting after kings to rule over them, afforded an excellent handle for prepossessing the colonists in favour of republican institutions, and prejudicing them against kingly government. Hereditary succession was turned into ridicule. The absurdity of subjecting a great continent to a small island on the other side of the globe, was represented in such striking language, as to interest the honor and pride of the colonists in renouncing the government of Great-Britain. The necessity, the advantages, and practicability of independence, were forcibly demonstrated. Nothing could be better timed than this performance. It was addressed to freemen, who had just received convincing proofs that Great-Britain had thrown them out of her protection, had engaged foreign mercenaries to make war upon them, and seriously designed to compel their unconditional submission to her unlimited power. It found the colonists most thoroughly alarmed for their liberties, and disposed to do and suffer any thing that promised their establishment. In union with the feelings and sentiments of the people, it produced surprising effects. Many thousands were convinced, and were led to approve and long for a separation from the mother country. Though that measure, a few months before, was not only foreign from their wishes, but the object of their abhorence, the current suddenly became so strong in its favour, that it bore down all opposition. The multitude was hurried down the stream, but some worthy men could not easily reconcile themselves to the idea of an eternal separation from a country, to which they had been long bound by the most endearing ties. They saw the sword drawn, but could not tell when it would be sheathed. They feared that the dispersed individuals of the several colonies would not be brought to coalesce under an efficient government, and that, after much anarchy, some future Cæsar would grasp their liberties, and confirm himself in a throne of despotism. They doubted the perseverance of their countrymen in effecting their independence, and were also apprehensive that, in case of success, their future condition would be less happy than their past. Some respectable individuals, whose principles were pure, but whose souls were not of that firm texture which revolutions require, shrunk back from the bold measures proposed by their more adventurous countrymen. To submit without an appeal to heaven, though secretly wished for by some, was not the avowed sentiment of any. But to persevere in petitioning and resisting was the system of some misguided honest men. The favourers of this opinion were generally wanting in that decision which grasps at great objects, and influenced by that timid policy, which does its work by halves. Most of them dreaded the power of Britain. A few, on the score of interest or an expectancy of favours from royal government, refused to concur with the general voice. Some of the natives of the parent state who, having lately settled in the colonies, had not yet exchanged European for American ideas, together with a few others, conscientiously opposed the measures of Congress: but the great bulk of the people, and especially of the spi-

rited and independent part of the community, came, with surprising unanimity, into the project of independence.

(To be continued.)

Account *of* Dr. HENRY MOYES, *the* Blind PHILOSOPHER.

Communicated, by Mr. Bew, *to the Literary and Philosophical Society, at* Manchester.

DR. HENRY MOYES, who occasionally read Lectures on philosophical chemistry at Manchester,* like Dr. Saunderson, the celebrated professor of Cambridge, lost his sight, by the small pox, in his early infancy. He never recollected to have seen: But the first traces of memory, I have (says he) are, in some confused ideas of the solar system. He had the good fortune to be born in a country where learning of every kind is highly cultivated, and to be brought up in a family devoted to learning.

Possessed of native genius, and ardent in his application, he made rapid advances in various departments of erudition; and not only acquired the fundamental principles of mechanics, music, and the languages; but likewise, entered deeply into the investigation of the profounder sciences; displaying an acute and general knowledge of geometry; of opticks; of algebra; of astronomy; chemistry; and, in short, of most of the branches of the Newtonian philosophy.

Mechanical exercises were the favourite employments of his infant years. At a very early age, he made himself acquainted with the use of edged tools so perfectly, that, notwithstanding his entire blindness, he was able to make little wind-mills; and he even constructed a loom with his own hands, which still shew the cicatrices of wounds he received in the execution of these juvenile exploits.

By a most agreeable intimacy and frequent intercourse, which I enjoyed with this accomplished blind gentleman, whilst he resided in Manchester; I had an opportunity of repeatedly observing the peculiar manner in which he arranged his ideas, and procured his information. Whenever he was introduced into company, I remarked, that he continued some time silent. The sound directed him to judge of the dimensions of the room; and the different voices, of the number of persons that were present; his distinction in these respects was very accurate; and his memory so retentive, that he was seldom mistaken. I have known him instantly recognise a person, on first hearing him speak, though more than two years had elapsed since the time of their last meeting. He determined, pretty nearly, the stature of those he was speaking with, by the direction of their voices; and he made tolerable conjectures respecting their tempers and dispositions, by the manner in which they conducted their conversation.

* And, since that period, in different parts of the United States.

It must be observed, that this gentleman's eyes were not totally insensible to intense light. The rays when refracted through a prism, and sufficiently vivid, produced certain distinguished effects on them. The red gave him a disagreeable sensation, which he compared to the touch of a saw. As the colours declined in violence, the harshness lessened, and the green afforded a sensation, that was highly pleasing to him; and which he described, as conveying an idea, similar to that which he felt in running his hand over smooth polished surfaces. Polished surfaces, meandering streams, and gentle declivities, were the figures by which he expressed his ideas of beauty. Rugged rocks, irregular points, and boisterous elements, furnished him with expressions for terror and disgust. He excelled in the charms of conversation; was happy in his allusions to visual objects; and discoursed on the nature, beauty, and composition of colours, with pertinence and precision.

Dr. Moyes was a striking instance of the power the human soul possesses, of finding resources of satisfaction, even under the most rigorous calamities. Though involved in ever during darkness, and excluded from the charming views of silent or animated nature, though dependant on an undertaking for the means of his subsistence, the success of which was very precarious; in short, though destitute of other support than his genius, and under the mercenary protection of a person whose integrity he suspected, still Dr. Moyes was generally cheerful and apparently happy. Indeed it must afford much pleasure to the feeling heart, to observe this hilarity of temper prevail, almost universally, with the blind. Though cut off from the ways of men, and the contemplation of *the face divine*, they have this consolation; they are exempt from the discernment, and contagious influence, of those painful emotions of the soul, that are visible on the countenance, and which hypocrisy itself can scarcely conceal. This disposition likewise may be considered, as an internal evidence of the native worth of the human mind; that thus supports its dignity and cheerfulness, under one of the severest misfortunes that can possibly befall us.

Method *of purifying* Common Salt:

(By the Earl *of* Dundonald.)

LET the salt that is to be purified be put into a conical vessel, with a small hole at the bottom, and placed in a moderate heat. Pour a saturated solution of salt, boiling hot, into the vessel, and it will gradually pass through the hole, dissolving and carrying with it nine tenths of the salts which rendered the common salt impure. Being already saturated with common salt, it cannot dissolve any more of it. A fresh brine may be made, with the purified salt, and the process repeated, till the required degree of purity be obtained.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

IMPARTIAL REVIEW

OF LATE

American Publications.

The NEW-ENGLAND FARMER; *or Georgical* DICTIONARY:

Containing a Compendious Account of the WAYS *and* METHODS *in which the moſt important* ART *of* HUSBANDRY, *in all its various branches, is, or may be, Practiſed to the Greateſt Advantage* IN THIS COUNTRY. *By* SAMUEL DEANE A. M. FELLOW *of the* AMERICAN ACADEMY *of* ARTS *and* SCIENCES. [Printed at *Worceſter*. Price one dollar and an half.]

THE author of this work diſcovers a conſiderable ſhare of philoſophical information, an extenſive acquaintance with the beſt writers on agriculture, and much laudable induſtry in acquiring an experimental knowledge of his ſubject. His book is recommended to the attention of the publick, by an agricultural committee of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, with whom we heartily concur as to its merits, and cheerfully give it our mite of recommendation. From Mr. Dean's Introduction, which is modeſt, ſenſible, and patriotic, the following extracts are taken.

"Perhaps, one occaſion of the low eſteem in which huſbandry has been held, may have been the poor ſucceſs which has moſt commonly attended the labours of thoſe who have embraced the profeſſion, Not only have moſt of them failed of rapidly increaſing their eſtates by it, but too many have had the mortification of making but an indifferent figure in life, even when they have uſed the ſtricteſt economy, and worn out their conſtitutions by hard labour. The misfortune has been, that a great proportion of their toil has been loſt by its miſapplication. To prevent this evil in future is a leading deſign of the preſent publication."

"European books on agriculture are ſufficiently plenty in the world, ſome of which are extremely well written; and this country is not wholly unfurniſhed with them. But they are not perfectly adapted to a region ſo differently circumſtanced. Though Engliſh writers may be peruſed by the judicious to great advantage, it would be unadviſable, and perhaps ruinous, for our farmers to adopt the methods of culture, in groſs, which they recommend to their countrymen. Local circumſtances ſo widely differ in the two countries, that, in many caſes, the right management in the one muſt needs be wrong in the other. Britain being generally liable to too much wetneſs, the Engliſh methods of culture muſt in many reſpects be different from thoſe of a region that is moſtly annoyed, as ours is, with the oppoſite extremity of drought. Difference of heat and cold muſt require a correſpondent variation in the ſuitable crops and management. Difference of ſeaſons and climates alter the time for ſowing the ſame kinds of ſeed; and the manures that prove to be moſt profitable in one country, cannot always be rationally expected to prove ſo in another, although they were equally obtainable."

"The author attempted to arrange the parts of his ſubject analytically. But the variety of the materials he had collected was ſo great, and their heterogeneouſneſs ſo

obvious, that he found it not eafy to do it to his own fatisfaction; which is one of the reafons why the book makes its appearance in the lexicographical form. And when he conſiders that what he is doing is not principally for the inſtruction of critical ſcholars, but for the direction of the common people, it appears that the want of a ſyſtematical arrangement is a matter of no great conſequence."

"The writer has had more zeal and courage in attempting to promote improvements in agriculture, ſince the happy termination of the late war, than before. Our holding the rank of a free and independent nation allows us to conſider the country as indiſputably our own, and ourſelves as monarchs over our farms. Nor does it appear probable, that we ſhall ſoon meet with any thing that will give us a material interruption, in purſuing the arts, or enjoying the bleſſings of peace. If great improvements were now to be made, we might have reaſon to hope we ſhould enjoy the beneſit of them through life, and that poſterity would not be deprived of them. But the moſt forcible reaſon for our cultivating this art, is the indiſpenſible neceſſity of it, to enable us to live as becomes an independent people. The alarming effect of the preſent low ſtate of huſbandry is, that we are neceſſitated to import much of our food and clothing, while we are incapable of making proportionable remittances in the produce of the ſoil, or in any thing elſe. What then could have been expected, but that the money we had in circulation at the end of the war, would be ſo diminiſhed in two or three years, as to reduce us to ſuch a lamentable want of it, as has been generally complained of? And what expedient in our power can be thought of, that is ſufficient to deliver us from this horrible grievance? As a good ſyſtem of national government is now eſtabliſhed, I ſee no reaſon to doubt but that a ſpirited attention to huſbandry and manufactures, accompanied with a more general practice of frugality and economy, would do it effectually; ſo that ſuch a foundation would be laid for our increaſing wealth, that we ſhould be able, in a ſhort time, to cancel our public debts; and might reaſonably hope, ere long, to become an opulent, reſpectable, and very powerful nation."

We ſhall now proceed to extract a few articles; ſuch as appear to be the moſt intereſting to our agricultural readers, and beſt calculated to give a juſt ſpecimen of the work. In doing this, we ſhall not always give the whole of an article, but ſhall occaſionally take abſtracts of ſome, and abridge others, for the ſake of giving as much uſeful information as poſſible, in our narrow limits.

AGRICULTURE, "Though other employments are oftentimes more lucrative to individuals than huſbandry, none can be ſo advantageous to the world. If it is a ſlower way of gaining wealth than ſome others, it is perhaps the leaſt hazardous of any. The farmer depends not on winds and waves, like the mariner; nor on the good will of his neighbours and the publick, for employment and bread, like the mechanick. The buſineſs is highly adapted to promote the health of the body, and the cheerfulneſs of the mind. And if it were better underſtood in this country, and more ſpiritedly purſued, both the pleaſure and the profit attending it would be greater than we have yet experienced. It is an employment which affords a variety of entertaining ſpeculations to an inquiſitive mind; and is adapted to lead us into a conſiderable acquaintance with the works of nature."

"In a philoſophic view, Agriculture is great and extenſive. In a political view, it is important, and perhaps the only firm and ſtable foundation of greatneſs. As a profeſſion, it ſtrengthens the mind, without enervating the body. In morals, it tends to increaſe virtue, without introducing vice. In religion, it naturally inſpires piety, devotion, and a dependence on providence, without a tincture of infidelity. It is a rational and agreeable amuſement to the man of leiſure, and a boundleſs ſource of contemplation and activity to the induſtrious."

ASHES, "Aſhes are commonly accounted a manure moſt ſuitable for low and moiſt lands. A cold and ſour ſpot certainly needs them more than any other. But I have found them to be good in all ſorts of ſoil.

They are not only a valuable manure, but an excellent antidote to the rapaciouſneſs of worms and inſects. Therefore they are a more proper manure for all thoſe plants which are liable to ſuffer by worms and inſects; ſuch as cabbages, turnips, cucumbers, melons, peas, and other pulſe. They ſhould be ſpread evenly, and not in too great quantity.

Aſhes in their full ſtrength are certainly beſt for manure; and they will not be in full ſtrength, unleſs they be kept dry; nor will it be eaſy to ſpread them properly. And they ſhould not be laid on lands long before there are roots to be nourished by them, leſt the rains rob them of their ſalts. A few buſhels on an acre are a good dreſſing for graſs lands that are low, and inclining to be moſſy. But aſhes from which ley has been drawn have no ſmall degree of virtue in them. The earthy particles are but little diminiſhed; and ſome of the ſaline particles remain.

A handful of aſhes, laid about the roots of Indian corn, is good to quicken its vegetation. But much of it ſhould not be in contact with the ſtalks. The beſt time for giving corn this dreſſing, is thought to be juſt before the ſecond or third hoeing: But ſome do it before the firſt, and even before the plants are up. Like other top-dreſſings, it is of moſt ſervice when applied at the time when plants need the greateſt quantity of nouriſhment. This happens in Indian corn when the plants are juſt going to ſend out ears and ſpindles."

BARLEY, a well known grain of which malt is made. In ſome countries it is alſo much uſed for bread. If it be kept long before grinding, it will be the better for this uſe, as a certain bitter taſte, which it has when new, is abated by age.—Barley is accounted cooling and deterſive; a broth of it is therefore given to perſons in fevers: But it muſt be hulled before it is fit for this uſe.

It is a ſort of corn very ſuitable for this region, as it ſeems liable to no diſtemper in our northerly part of Maſſachuſetts eſpecially; bears the drought well, and never fails of yielding a crop. It will grow in any ſoil: Even a ſoil ſo clayey that it is fit for ſcarcely any other grain, will anſwer well for this, as I have found by long experience. But it does better on ſome other ſoils.

It ſhould be ſowed as early as the ſeaſon and ſoil will admit. About the beginning of May is a ſuitable time. The quantity of ſeed for an acre is two buſhels, if the grain be ſmall; if larger, more in proportion. The ground ſhould have two plowings at leaſt. It ſhould be well harrowed after ſowing; and then a roller paſſed over it, to cloſe the ſoil about the corns, that they may not fail of vegetating. And rolling prepares the ſurface for mowing the crop, and raking it up clean, which is a matter of great importance.

"I ſhould have obſerved, that barley muſt be ſowed ſoon after plowing, leſt the moiſture of the ſoil be too much evapurated. It being a dry huſky grain, a conſiderable degree of moiſture is requiſite to make it vegetate. If the ground ſhould be very dry at ſowing time, and the ſeaſon late, ſteeping the ſeed in ley would not be amiſs."

"Some have got an opinion, that barley ſhould be harveſted before it is quite ripe. Though the flour may be a little whiter, it ſhrinks ſo much, that the crop ſeems to be greatly waſted by early cutting. No grain, I think, requires more ripening than this; and it is not apt to ſhatter out when it is very ripe. It ſhould be threſhed ſoon after harveſting: and much beating, after it is cleared from the ſtraw, is needful to get off the beards."

BURNET, a valuable perennial plant, which has lately been brought into uſe as a graſs for feeding cattle, by Mr. Roque, in the neighbourhood of London. Several Engliſh farmers have teſtified from their experience concerning it, that it grows and flouriſhes well even on the pooreſt and drieſt of ſandy and gravelly ſoils;—that an acre will yield three loads of hay, by cutting it twice in a year, or more than forty buſhels of ſeed;—that, the ſeed is better for horſes than oats, and the ſtraw, after it is thraſhed, equal to the beſt of common hay;—that it continues in perfect verdure, and even growing during the winter;—that it affords excellent winter paſture for cattle and horſes; and that it makes cows give an extraordinary quantity of the beſt taſted milk.

I have have had a bed of this graſs for two years paſt on a hungry ſand. It has grown luxuriantly, the ſtems riſing to the height of three feet; and the ſeeds ripened the year it was ſowed, though it was not ſowed till the end of May. The ſecond year the ſeeds ripened, I think, in June. The ſeverity of our winter froſt neither killed any of it, nor ſo much as altered the verdure of the ſtems or leaves. Some of it was cut up and given to cattle, as ſoon as the ſnow was off, which they eat very greedily.

I think this plant bids fair to be a profitable graſs in this country, where froſt occaſions the confining our ſtocks to dry fodder for ſix or ſeven months. For on a paſture of this graſs, cattle horſes and ſheep, may feed till the ground is covered with ſnow; and again in the ſpring, as ſoon as the ground is bare.

It is alſo excellent for ſoiling, or to give green to cattle in racks; and when it is made into hay, the leaves are not apt to crumble, or any part of the hay to be waſted.

They who wiſh to propagate this graſs, may be aſſured, that there is not the leaſt difficulty in doing it: For it is not only a moſt hardy plant, but I have not found it to be at all liable to be hurt by any kind of inſects. The Engliſh farmers recommend keeping it clear of weeds during the firſt ſummer, or till it is ſo large as to cover the ground. This may be done partly by harrowing. For as it is a ſtrong tap-rooted plant, the teeth of the harrow will not injure the roots at all.

CALF, "When calves are deſigned for veal, they ſhould be taken from the cow the next day after they are calved. Let them ſuck only two teats during the firſt week; three during the ſecond; and let them have the whole of the milk during the third and fourth weeks; and then kill them. If they have all the milk at firſt, they will grow ſo faſt that they will ſoon need more than all: The natural conſequence is, that they will grow lean, and not be fit for veal. Many kill them at three weeks old; but the veal is not commonly ſo good, and the ſkins of calves ſo young, are of but little value."

CANKER-WORM, "There are ſeveral experiments I could wiſh to have tried, for ſubduing theſe inſects: Such as burning brimſtone under the trees in a calm time; —or piling dry aſhes round the roots of trees in the ſpring;—or throwing powdered quick-lime, or ſoot, over the trees when they are wet:—or ſprinkling them about the beginning of June, with ſea-water, or water in which wormwood, or walnut leaves, have been boiled;—or with an infuſion of elder, from which I ſhould entertain great hopes of ſucceſs. The liquid may be eaſily applied to all the parts of a tree by a large wooden ſyringe."

"I ſhould ſuppoſe that the beſt time for making trial of theſe methods would be ſoon after the worms are hatched: For at that ſtage of their exiſtence they are tender, and the more eaſily killed."

"But as tarring the trees is the beſt antidote we yet know of, and as many perſons of experience believe it is poſſible that the inſects may be thus quite prevented paſſing up the trees, I ſhall here give directions how to perform it in the moſt effectual manner."

"In the firſt place, it is neceſſary to begin the operation very early in the year. Not obſerving this caution, has occaſioned the want of ſucceſs which many have complained of: For it is certain that the bugs will begin to paſs up as ſoon as the ground is ſo much thawed, that they can extricate themſelves; which is in ſome years as early as February. Therefore to make ſure work, it is beſt to begin as ſoon as the ground is bare of ſnow in that month, that the firſt thawing of the ground may not happen before the trees are prepared; for, beginning after ever ſo few of the inſects are gone up, the labour will all be loſt."

"Another thing to be obſerved is, to fill the crevices of the bark with clay mortar, before the ſtrip of canvaſs is put on, that the inſects may not find any paſſages for them under it."

"Having put on the ſtrip, which ſhould be at leaſt three inches wide, drawn it cloſe, and ſtrongly faſtened the ends together, a thumb-rope of tow ſhould be tied round the tree, cloſe to the lower edge of the ſtrip. The deſign of doing this is, that the tar may not drip, nor run down on the bark of the tree, which would injure it."

"When all the trees of an orchard are thus prepared, let the ſtrips be plentifully ſmeared with cold tar, put on with a bruſh. It ſhould be renewed once a day without fail. The beſt time is ſoon after ſunſet; becauſe the inſects are wont to paſs up in the evening, and the tar will not harden ſo much in the night as in the day, becauſe of the dampneſs of the air. The daily taſk muſt be renewed, and performed with the greateſt care, till the latter end of May, or till the time when the hatching of the worms is commonly over, which will be earlier or later, according to the difference of climate."

"It is not leſs than about fifty years, ſince this inſect began its depredations in New-England, in the parts which had been longeſt cultivated. But perhaps there is ſome reaſon to hope that providence is about to extirpate them: For a kind of little bird has lately made its appearance in ſome parts of the country, which feeds upon the canker-worms. Should theſe birds have a rapid increaſe, the inſects will be thinned, ſo as to be leſs formidable, if not wholly deſtroyed."

(To be continued.)

CHEMICAL *and* ECONOMICAL ESSAYS,
By JOHN PENINGTON.

(Concluded from page 110.)

ESSAY VIII, is on the calcination of metals and the doctrine of phlogiston. The phenomena which occur in the calcination of metals, and in the restoration of calces to their metallic state, have long been curious and difficult objects of investigation.—Dr. Stahl's explanation of those phenomena is well known. He supposed every combustible body to contain a principle of inflammability, which he named phlogiston; that every metal was compounded of a calx, or earth, *sui generis*, and this phlogiston; and that in the process of calcination, the phlogiston, uniting with the air, left the calx in its simple uncombined state. This theory received a considerable degree of support, from the means used to restore calces to their metallic state. Charcoal, or other inflammable substances, being subjected to heat in contact with a calx, produced a metal, which according to this theory, was a compound of the calx and the phlogiston of the inflammable body.—But an insuperable objection to this doctrine was, that the calx of a metal was always found to be heavier than the metal itself. How this could happen from the *loss* of phlogiston, was not easy to be comprehended. Dr. Black's explanation was no less incomprehensible. He supposed *phlogiston* to be what he called *the principle of levity*, which *diminished* the weight of bodies to which it was *added*.

A different theory, brought forward by M. Lavoisier, but which appears to be of a much more ancient date,* seemed more satisfactory. He found, by experiment, that a considerable quantity of pure air was absorbed, during the process of calcination; and that the weight of the air absorbed, corresponded exactly with the increase in the weight of the calx. Hence he concluded, that a metal was a simple substance, and that a metallic calx was a compound of a metal and pure air. The proselytes to this theory are numerous. Dr. Priestly and Mr. Kirwan, however, still remain the champions of phlogiston. The former published the result of an experiment, which seemed, for some time, to overthrow M. Lavoisier's theory. He revived calx of lead by means of *inflammable air*, which it absorbed in passing to a metallic state. Thus, according to M. Lavoisier's experiment, lead was produced by the addition of *pure air* to its calx; but, according to that of Dr. Priestly, by combining the calx with *inflammable air*. This chemical paradox remained unaccounted for, till after the publication of Mr. Cavendish's experiments, by which water appeared to be a compound substance, produced by the combination of *inflammable* with *pure* air. This discovery enabled M. Lavoisier to remove many objections which had been urged against his theory. With respect to Dr. Priestly's experiment on calx of lead, which he revived by means of inflammable air, M. Lavoisier supposed, that the inflam-

* See an account of Dr. Mayow's works, in the Asylum for February.

mable air united with the dephlogisticated air of the calx, and thus formed water, which had escaped Dr. Priestly's notice.

The controverly respecting phlogiston is still prosecuted with great eagerness; and in the course of the numerous experiments to which it has given rise, many curious and useful discoveries have been made; which show that disputes on experimental subjects are favourable to the promotion of philosophical knowledge. The great question in dispute however, remains still undetermined.

Dr. Priestly obtained fixed air from iron filings and red precipitate, from which he supposed fixed air to be composed of pure air and phlogiston; from a comparison of this with Mr. Cavendish's experiments our author observes, that the component parts of *water* and *fixed air* are the same, differing only in proportion. He then proceeds to establish a theory, to account for the phenomena of calcination, without exploding phlogiston, or contradicting the experiments either of Priestly or Lavoisier. Having made some observations on the probable existence of a principle analagous to the phlogiston of Stahl, in all combustible bodies, he proceeds thus:

We come now to our theory, assuming it as granted, that in every inflammable body there is a substance analagous to the phlogiston of Stahl; and I have some reason to believe, from some experiments I myself have made upon the subject, that when united to a very small quantity of dephlogisticated air, it forms the phlogisticated air of *Dr. Priestly*; with a larger quantity, I think *water* would be produced; with a still larger quantity, it is probable the *aerial acid* would be obtained; and if a very small proportion of inflammable air (the elements of which I presume are contained in all bodies) is united with a large quantity of dephlogisticated air, I am almost convinced that the *nitrous acid* would be the product. Therefore, when a metal is heated in contact with vital or respirable air, the *inflammable air* contained in the metal unites with this air, and the compound in this instance is generally *fixed air*, though sometimes I suppose it may be *water*; this acid may have a very great tendency to unite with the *metallic calx*, and thus the weight may be encreased, and I now offer it as an opinion, that no man ever saw a pure metallic calx uncombined with any thing.

But, if we mistake not, Dr. Priestly has lately refused his assent to Mr. Cavendish's doctrine respecting water. Should this be overthrown, M. Lavoisier's doctrine, and our author's theory, will be deprived of their chief support.

In Essay IX, our author treats of the analysis of ores by solution. The mode of analyzing here laid down, will be sufficient for the purpose of discovering whether an ore contains metal, and for distinguishing the ores of the different metals from one another; but experiments of a different nature will be necessary, when the value of an ore, or the quantity of metal which is contained in a given quantity of it, is to be ascertained.

Essay X, contains directions for obtaining the regulus of antimony, by separating it from the sulphur with which it is combined in the crude antimony.

Take any quantity of coarsely powdered antimony, and one fourth of its weight of powdered sea salt, put them in a crucible furnished with a cover, into a furnace that will raise a considerable degree of heat; as soon as the crucible appears of a bright red colour, add as much by weight of *small nails* (iron being a substance having a greater attraction to the sulphur) as the antimony put in; cover up the crucible, and let it stand on the fire a few minutes longer; it may be then taken out, and struck gently while cooling, that the regulus may the better get to the bottom, when cold, the regulus will be found at the bottom, and the scoria, or dross, adhering above it, from which it may be separated by the stroke of an hammer. The regulus thus

obtained is pretty pure. I have made regulus equally good, by ſubſtituting an article otherwiſe uſeleſs, for the nails, which will much diminiſh the price of the regulus, I mean the *refuſe clippings of tin*, univerſally thrown away by our tin-men in this city; theſe could be obtained for a trifle given to their boys to ſave them, and the nails will coſt ten pence or a ſhillings per pound, which makes the regulus come ſo high, that it will be made by that proceſs to conſiderable loſs; thus, by ſubſtituting even half the weight of theſe clippings of tin for the iron, and conducting the proceſs as laid down above, we obtain a regulus equally pure, and nearly at one half the expence. I have made it in this way ſeveral times, and can venture to aſſert that there are few proceſſes in chemiſtry more eaſy, and in which ſucceſs is more uniformly certain.

I am told that type-founders in and near this city frequently find it very difficult to procure the regulus of antimony at any rate; I would recommend theſe to make ſome experiment for themſelves; for I am confident, that in a good large iron pot, well lined with the materials of which the crucibles are made (*i. e.* clay and ſand) and firſt made red hot, ſixty or ſeventy pounds might be made in the ſpace of four or five hours.

The regulus, when broken, ſhews a ſtarlike appearance on its ſurface, and this the type founders and other artiſts hold to be an infallible ſign of its purity; but, I think it is erroneous, for I have ſeveral times had ſpecimens of very pure regulus, which did not ſhew this ſtarlike appearance, though upon being melted, and ſuffered to cool again, it had the ſtarry chryſtallization; and I am far from being certain that the regulus would *not* have this ſtarry appearance, even when ſtill combined with a little ſulphur.

In Eſſay XI, directions are given for manufacturing Pruſſian blue. A number of experiments are related, and accompanied with obſervations on the theory of the proceſs, and of the colouring matter.

Eſſay XII, contains a proceſs for making the patent yellow. Our author tells us, that he firſt diſcovered the component parts of this beautiful pigment to be calx of lead and marine acid, by analyzing it.

We fear the prejudice complained of in the following extract, is too generally prevalent in the United States.

It muſt ſurprize us to find the patent yellow ſtill imported, when it could be made here by any workman who uſes great fires, with but little time and attention, without neglecting any other buſineſs. Whoſoever wiſhes to make it here would do well to imitate the Engliſh as much as poſſible; he ſhould not alter it in colour, even if he could improve it, for I found that ſuch of my ſpecimens of the patent yellow only, were admired by our painters, which reſembled the Engliſh, whilſt one in particular, which, by unprejudiced men of taſte, was thought far ſuperior to the imported, they eſteemed but little: nay, if poſſible, I would even caſt it in moulds exactly like theirs, and, in fact, I would conceal it from as many as I could, that it was made in America. I bluſh for my country, when I confeſs that the rage for imported articles has not yet ſubſided; and a rational chemiſt, eſpecially, will ſmile when he ſhall be informed, that many inſiſt upon it that American Glauber's ſalt will not operate as powerfully as that made in Europe.

Eſſay XIII, is on the manufacturing of ſulphur, green vitriol, and vitriolic acid.

The ore called *iron pyrites*, which is a native combination of ſulphur and iron, is found in large quantities in different parts of the United States; ſo that we are furniſhed with the means of manufacturing both ſulphur and green vitriol, in our own country. An engraving of a furnace, and other neceſſary apparatus for manufacturing ſulphur, was publiſhed in the Columbian Magazine for September, 1789. To this our author refers. He doubts whether ſulphur would be a profitable article of manufacture in America. With reſpect to the manufacture of green vitriol, he is more ſanguine. This, though a cheap ſubſtance, is much in demand; and will be ſtill more ſo as our woollen manufactories, and conſequently the buſineſs of dying, increaſe. The proceſs for obtaining it is ſo ſimple, that the moſt ignorant are

adequate to the undertaking. Nothing more than mere combustion of the ore is necessary. By the application of heat, the vitriolic acid of the sulphur is detached from the phlogiston, with which it was combined in that substance; and, uniting with the iron of the pyrites, forms copperas, or green vitriol.

The great expence of obtaining vitriolic acid, from the combustion of sulphur with nitre, has given rise to numerous speculations for discovering some mode of supplying the sulphur with air to support combustion, without nitre. Our author endeavoured to supply the air with a pair of bellows, but in vain; as the fumes of the sulphur were to be carried by pipes into two jars filled with water, he found, that the column of water in the jars formed too powerful a resistance to the working of the bellows. He describes an improvement on this plan, and refers to a plate for the improved apparatus, but there is no such plate in the whole book. We find that he recommends the application of steam; but for want of the plate we are left in the dark, as to his manner of employing it.

Essay XIV, contains some ingenious observations on the manufacture of soap.

All unctuous oils combine *chemically* with alkaline substances, especially the fixed alkali, and form soaps. I say it is a chemical combination, though perhaps less perfect than some others, because there is an alteration in the sensible properties of the two component parts of the soap, for the alkali, or ley, has lost its corrosive acrid taste, and although the oil still appears somewhat greasy to the feel, yet it is now rendered soluble in water, and has lost the property of *greasing* linen, or other things of that kind, for it will even take out grease spots from cloths very effectually.

The process of making soap is sufficiently simple, and well known. A quantity of ley is made from wood ashes, pot-ash, soda, or any other fixed alkaline salt, made stronger by quick-lime, the unctuous oil is added to it, and they are boiled together for some time, until the whole mixture appears of the consistence of melted glue; if it is then taken off and set to cool, we have a soap very different in qualities, according to the alkali made use of; if the ley was made from wood-ashes, such as the ashes of oak and hickory wood, or from pot-ash, which contain only a *vegetable* alkali, we invariably get *soft soap*, if soda was made use of, that is, the alkali got from the ashes of plants growing near the sea shore, called the fossil or mineral alkali, we shall always get *hard soap*.

About two years ago, I laid before the Medical Society of this city a memoir on the formation of *hard* soap, when the vegetable alkali is used, and there endeavoured to prove that when *sea salt* was put into the *soft soap*, a double decomposition actually took place, contrary to the ideas of many persons, and even of some chemists, who supposed, that as sea salt required a considerable quantity of water for its solution, it took that water from the soft soap, and left it in the state of hard soap; this idea I supposed at that time to be entirely new, but I find that Mr. Nicholson introduced it into the second edition of his System of Philosophy, which appeared in this city two months before I read my essay to the Medical Society, but I declare that I had not at that time seen that book: Mr. Nicholson supposes, that the sea salt answers both the purpose of a double decomposition and of drawing the water off from the soap, but I cannot agree with him in the last supposition. When sea salt is added to soft soap, a double elective attraction, and of course a double decomposition, ensues; the marine acid of the sea salt combines with the *vegetable* alkali of the soft soap, and at the same instant gives up the *fossil alkali*, which it contains, to the unctuous oil, which two last substances form *hard soap*; it is therefore the practice to add a certain quantity of the sea salt to the soft soap when boiling, and when cold, the hard soap will form a *cake*, on the top of the kettle, or whatever vessel it may have been boiled in.

Our author adduces a number of arguments to prove that the decomposition he mentions actually takes place; and that the salt an-

ſwers no other purpoſe than that of merely giving up its foſſil alkali to the oil, and thus forming hard ſoap.

Every perſon knows that hard water (as it is commonly called) will not anſwer for waſhing. Of this we have the following theory, in the eſſay before us:

When ſoap is mixed with certain kinds of water, called *hard waters*, a decompoſition of it happens, and the oil or the fat being diſengaged, it floats on the water, and is in a condition to exert all the properties it had before combination; hence it greaſes any thing that is waſhed with it. The *hardneſs* of water is moſt commonly owing to two cauſes, either *fixed air*, or an *earthly* ſalt: and I have great reaſon to believe, that in this city, the fixed air diſſolved in water, is the moſt common cauſe. It is unneceſſary to offer any arguments, in the preſent improved ſtate of chemical knowledge, to ſhew that fixed air is an *acid*, and it is alſo equally well known that all acids have a greater attraction to all alkalies than oils have, hence the fixed air is able to unite with the alkali of the ſoap, and to leave its oil uncombined.

We would conclude, from theory, that whatever would deſtroy the acidity of the fixed air, would purify the hard water, and experiment proves our ſuppoſition right; for when rain, river, or ſpring water, from certain circumſtances, cannot be got, I have found that *pot-aſh*, added to common pump water, in the ſmall proportion of a quarter of a pound to twenty gallons, will make it as ſoft as any water whatever, and equally uſeful for every purpoſe.

When ſoap is decompoſed by fixed air, the alkali and the fixed air unite, forming a neutral ſalt; called by chemiſts, *aerated foſſil alkali*. Mr. Beaume, a French chemiſt, ſuppoſed that he found borax formed in ſoap water, which had been expoſed to the air for a conſiderable length of time. This ſuppoſition our author has proved, by experiment, to be erroneous. The fixed air of the atmoſphere combined with the foſſil alkali of the ſoap, and formed *aerated foſſil alkali*, a ſalt in many reſpects ſimilar to *borax*.

In Eſſay XV, ſome ideas are ſuggeſted on the cauſe of the change of colour in growing vegetables.

Eſſay XVI, contains explanations of the chemical terms uſed in the preceding Eſſays.

We have now given an account of the ſeveral eſſays in this volume, excepting one on *Fermentation*, a review of which was publiſhed in the Aſylum for June, 1790. We think that ſome of theſe eſſays merit the attention of the young chemiſt; and that others of them may be read with advantage, by the chemical artiſt.

Gladly would we cloſe our obſervations, without one unfavourable remark; but impartiality and candour demand, that where we have been deſirous to praiſe, as far as praiſe was due, we ſhould cenſure, with freedom, what is glaringly amiſs.—It were to be wiſhed that our author had endeavoured to write more correctly; and that he had not been ſo much diſpoſed to claim the merit of *originality*. Some of thoſe theories and experiments which he calls *original*, and of which he ſpeaks in very confident terms, have been long and generally known. We might here deſcend to particulars, but a ſingle inſtance may ſuffice. In page 199, an experiment to aſcertain the preſence of ſugar in the blood, by means of the nitrous acid, is publiſhed as a *diſcovery* of our author. The very ſame kind of experiment is mentioned by Fourcroy, London edition, 1788, vol. 4, page 295, to which we beg leave to refer the reader.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

TETANUS.

IN the firſt volume of the *Tranſactions of the Cæſarean and Royal Academy of Surgery at Vienna*, is a diſſertation on the tetanus, by M. Plenk. The obſervations of this author, and the caſes he relates, ſtrongly confirm Dr. Ruſh's theory of the cauſe of tetanus, and eſtabliſh the efficacy of his mode of cure. M. Plenk applies warm ſtimulant dreſſings, and gives bark in large quantities internally. To the bark he attributes the chief influence; but opium, in his opinion, aſſiſts its efficacy. In one or two caſes, he tells us, mercury appeared to be uſeful.

In the *ſecond volume* of the *Medical memoirs of London* a caſe of tetanus, which was cured by electricity, is related; and alſo a caſe, in which a remarkable ſpaſmodic affection, from the puncture of a pin, was cured by the liberal uſe of laudanum, (1170 drops in 24 hours.) It appears that the ravages of the tetanus have been leſſened in different parts of the world, but particularly in the Weſt-Indies, by adopting Dr. Ruſh's mode of treating that diſeaſe.

FOSSIL ALKALI.

Mr. Keir, author of the New Chemical Dictionary, it is ſaid, obtains the foſſil alkali, by decompoſing marine ſalt with a metallic calx; and Mr. Turner obtains it in his manufactory, of a yellowiſh colour, by decompoſing ſea ſalt with a calx of lead. M. Scheele and others have ſhewn, that neutral ſalts which have the fixed alkali for their baſe may be decompoſed by lime, but the decompoſition is only a partial one. The following proceſs for obtaining this valuable article, in a pure ſtate, has lately been publiſhed in Germany, by M. Couret. "Take of the Epſom ſalt of Lorrain (a kind of Glauber's ſalt) eight ounces, and of purified alkali of tartar three ounces and an eighth; diſſolve theſe together in pure water, evaporate the ſolution to a due degree, and cryſtallize; beautiful cryſtals of mineral alkali will be obtained, and alſo a tartar of vitriol which will be uſeful in medicine." This mode, we fear, would be too expenſive. In Great Britain, application was made to parliament, ſome years ſince, for a remiſſion of the duty on ſalt. By this, the applicants ſaid they would be enabled to manufacture the foſſil alkali, ſo as to ſell it at the market price. The Analytical Reviewers, who mention this circumſtance, aſk what has been done in this buſineſs by parliament?——Theſe facts we have collected, with a view to excite the attention of our American chemiſts to this important ſubject.

MECHANISM OF SPEECH.

Mr. von Kempelen, of Vienna, after long and diligent enquiry into the mechaniſm of ſpeech, has framed an image capable of articulating any ſounds that may be required. He has publiſhed propoſals for printing, by ſubſcription, an account of this curious piece of mechaniſm, and of his enquiry into the nature of ſpeech.

THE

Columbian Parnassiad.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

AN ODE, *on the progress of enlightened* FREEDOM.

RECITATIVE.

DESPOTS! though seated on your radiant thrones,
Reason, at length, your tyranny disowns;
And Freedom her extended sway shall boast,
From Lapland's dreary clime to China's coast.

AIR.

Hark! her voice is heard by all—
"Monarchs to your trust be true."
Art shall never more enthral
Those, who long have bow'd to you.
Splendid crowns although ye wear,
Yet those crowns the people gave.
Still the loyal subject hear,
And despise the venal slave.

RECITATIVE.

That voice, which by the western world was heard,
By the whole world shall shortly be reverb'd.
Despots shall listen to the glorious call;
Or from their hands their useless sceptres fall.

AIR.

Nations to conquest have aspir'd,
By av'rice or ambition fir'd;
And history's pages oft describe
The rage of many a savage tribe,
Who perpetrated horrid crimes,
Blasting with wrath the fairest climes.

RECITATIVE.

But who on war shall madly now be bent,
Since industry can furnish true content;
Commerce her sail with cheerfulness expands,
And spreads her influence o'er remotest lands.

AIR.

Hail science! to thy laws we bend,
Thou truly universal friend!
Thou prejudices canst dismiss,
And link the world in bands of bliss;
Proving the great Creator's plan,
That man should aid his brother man.

RECITATIVE.

Philanthropy! thy cheering light bestow;
With double lustre, mild religion, glow;
May charity, thy handmaid, gladden earth,
And prove to ev'ry land her heavenly birth!

AIR.

Be the trumpet of war heard no more;
Let concord eternally reign;
Whilst commerce adorns each shore,
With peace and good faith in her train.
The star brightly shines in the west,
Whose lustre shall charm all mankind;
And tell them, they all may be blest,
If truly to virtue inclin'd.

Philad. 1791.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

ANACREONTIC ODE, *on the approach of* SPRING; 1791.

WINTER! from our plains retire;
Seek the regions of the north;
And, combin'd with Hecla's fire,
Let thy terrors sally forth.
Near the bleak and stormy pole
Be thy tempests heard to roll.

Midst the glow of boreal flame,*
Fix a while thy horrid throne;
There supreme dominion claim;
There, unrivall'd, rule alone;
And, one scourge of man design'd,
With thy chains the Baltic bind.

Ranging far, with cruel haste,
Greenland feels thy endless frost;
And Siberia's dreary waste
Now by beasts alone is cross'd;

* *Aurora borealis.*

Whilst th' appointed power of day
Scarcely shines, with feeble ray.

But thy fury now subsides—
Southward as thy steps advance,
Rivers own again their tides;
Ocean wakes, as from a trance:
Billows, milder than thy rage,
With resounding shores engage.

Winter! we should scarcely mourn,
Who thy terrors seldom feel;
Spring again shall soon return,
And unnumber'd joys reveal.
Harbingers of genial spring,
Birds again shall sweetly sing.

See the happy hours at hand;
Promisers of ev'ry bliss;
Mirth! again our smiles command;
Industry! thy fears dismiss:
Gratitude! to echoing skies
Let thy loud Hosannas rise.

Delaware! thy waves again
Gently flow with useful pride;
Mildly now they seek the main;
Mildly now, returning glide.
Commerce too exulting sees
Many a sail invite the breeze.

Husbandmen! for toil prepare;
Earth expects the honour'd plough,
Useful arts can banish care;
All to useful arts should bow.
Whilst each active bosom glows,
Toil adds rapture to repose.

All should hail returning spring,
Nature's universal friend—
Thus whilst vales and mountains ring,
To the strains man should attend,
And, with grateful heart and voice,
In the general peal rejoice.

Philad. 1791.

An ELEGY *to the memory of the* AMERICAN VOLUNTEERS, *who fell in the engagement at Lexington, on the* 19*th. April* 1775.

(By a young Lady of Eighteen.)

LET joy be dumb, let mirth's gay carol cease,
See plaintive sorrow come bedew'd with tears,
With mournful steps retires the cherub Peace,
And horrid War with all his train appears.

He comes, and crimson slaughter marks his way.
Stern famine follows in his vengeful tread,
Before him pleasure, hope, and love, decay,
And meek-ey'd mercy hangs the drooping head.

Fled like a dream are those delightful hours,
When here with innocence and peace we rov'd,
Secure, and happy, in our native bowers,
Blest in the presence of the youths we lov'd.

The blow is struck, which thro' each future age,
Shall call from Pity's eye the frequent tear;
Which gives the brother to the brother's rage,
And dyes with *British* blood, the *British* spear.

Where e'er the barb'rous story shall be told,
The British cheek shall glow with conscious shame,
This deed in bloody characters enroll'd,
Shall stain the lustre of their former name.

But you, ye brave defenders of our cause,
The first in this dire contest call'd to bleed,
Your names hereafter crown'd with just applause,
Each manly breast, with joy-mixt woe, shall read;

Your memories dear to every free-born mind,
Shall need no monument your fame to raise,
For ever in our grateful hearts enshrin'd;
And blest by your united country's praise.

But O, permit the muse, with grief sincere,
The widow's heart-felt anguish to bemoan,
To join the sister's, and the orphan's tear,
Whom this sad day from all they lov'd has torn:

Blest be this humble strain if it imparts,
The dawn of peace, to but one pensive breast,
If it can hush one sigh that rends your hearts,
Or lull your sorrows to a short liv'd rest,

But vain the hope, too well this bosom knows
How faint is glory's voice to nature's calls;
How weak the balm the laurel wreath bestows,
To heal our breasts, when love or friendship falls.

Yet think they in their country's cause expir'd,
While guardian angels watch'd their parting sighs,
Their dying breasts with constancy inspir'd,
And bade them welcome to their native skies.

Our future fate is wrapt in darkest gloom,
And threat'ning clouds, from which their souls are free'd,
Eer the big tempest bursts they press the tomb,
Not doom'd to see their much-lov'd country bleed.

O let such thoughts as these assuage your grief,
And stop the tear of sorrow as it flows,
Till TIME's all powerful hand shall yield relief,
And shed a kind oblivion o'er your woes

But Oh, thou Being infinitely just,
Whose boundless eye with mercy looks on all,
On thee alone thy humble people trust,
On thee alone for their deliv'rance call.

Long did thy hand unnumber'd blessings shower,
And crown our land with liberty and peace,
Extend, O Lord, again thy saving power,
And bid the horrors of invasion cease.

But if thy awful wisdom has decreed,
That we severer evils yet shall know,
By thy Almighty justice doom'd to bleed,
And deeper drink the bitter draughts of woe,

O grant us, Heaven, that constancy of mind
Which over adverse fortune rises still;
Unshaken faith, calm fortitude resign'd,
And full submission to thy holy will.

To Thee, *Eternal Parent*, we resign
Our bleeding cause, and on thy wisdom rest,
With grateful hearts we bless thy power divine,
And own, resign'd, "*Whatever is, is best.*"

SYLVIA.

Philadelphia, May 1775.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM

The CRAW *of* FASHION; *a new Song.*

FASHION! mayest thou ever reign
In each city; on each plain!
Lying rouge we now despise,
Cushions cease to scale the skies;
Taste ordains a newer law,
And establishes the *Craw*.

What was beauty's flowing hair?
What, an easy shape and air?
Beauty, shape, nay sense must yield
Beaten from the well-fought field.
Even *Cork*, asham'd, withdraws,
And obeys superior *Craws*.

Beaming eyes, and glowing lips!
Fashion must your charms eclipse.
Once the advocates of love
Prais'd the fleckness of the dove.
Now they more admire the daw,
And revere the swelling *Craw*.

We have heard that belles had hearts;
But, disguis'd by fashion's arts,
(So commands imperial ton)
Bosoms soon they will disown.
Yet a moment let us pause——
Who will then admire their *Craws?*

Beauty! with true lustre shine;
All will own thee half divine:
If to reason thou should'st bend,
Truth will own thee reason's friend.
Study to preserve applause—
Maids have *Bosoms*;—*Geese* have *Craws*.

P.

Philadelphia, March, 1791.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SINCERITY; *A Poem.*

Addressed to CLARA.

The muse no compliments to Clara pays;
The maid has sense, and scorns deceitful lays.
When the weak bard exerts his feeble vein,
And "*Angel*," "*Goddess*," glitters in each strain,
She ne'er is known the poem to rehearse,
And treats alike the poet, and his verse.
When fops, who often will to wit pretend,
Her easy shape and various charms commend,
Resentment Clara scarcely can retain,
And either smiles contempt, or frowns disdain.
Her gentle mind such moderation sways,
That she scarce listens to a friend's true praise.
The woe, O flattery! from thee which flows,
Let many a maid in piteous strains disclose.
From vanity unceasing sorrows rise;
Lothario flatters, and Calista dies.
What various evils must that fair betide,
Who harbours in her breast the traitor *pride?*
Cast from the heights of innocence and bliss,
No peace she knows, but sinks in shame's abyss.
Sincerity! to thee all praise is due,
Firm in thy paths, and in thy dictates true.
To praise the maiden justly may lay claim,
Who, venerating thee, preserves her fame.
Strait are thy paths, Sincerity! From pride,
And folly's winding maze, our steps they guide.
To Clara thus, whom sense and truth endear,
Sincere herself, e'en foplings are sincere.
Then flattery be dumb!—Henceforth the fair
Shall learn of thee and misery to beware;
Sincerity shall to their bosoms take;
And Clara's conduct their example make.
At least suspicion flattery should create,
Who fawns in Courtship makes the sternest mate;
Grows to his consort's real merit blind,
And scorns her person, as he scorns her mind.
How many have by flattery been deceiv'd!
The serpent flatter'd, and the *dame* believed.
Hence sin and shame our hapless lives disgrace,
And various woes infest our suffering race.

I.

Philadelphia, Feb. 1791.

The following beautiful extract from a description of Poetry, by Della Crusca, will remind the reader of Collins's celebrated Ode on the Passions.

HAh! as she swept, with wild'ring hand,
Her charmed harp, o'er sea and land,
Fleet *Zephyr* bore each melting tone
That *Melancholy* thought her own,
That frolic *Pleasure* smiled to hear,
And *Madness* welcomed with a tear;
While Valour, rushing at the sound,
Dashed his burning eye-balls round,
And, as far off his shield he hurled,
With naked breast defied the world!

To a beloved fair one; written a short time before the author died of a consumption.

IF in that breast, so good, so pure,
Compassion ever loved to dwell,
Pity the sorrows I endure;
The cause I must not——dare not tell.

The grief that on my quiet preys,
That rends my heart, that checks my tongue
I fear will last me all my days,
But feel—it will not last me long.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

On a deformed lady, who wore patches on her face.

YOur homely face, dear Sally, you disguise,
With patches numerous as Argus' eyes:
I own that patching's requisite for you;
For more we're pleased, the less your face we view.
Yet I advise, since my advice you ask,
Wear but one patch, and be that patch a mask.

G. H.

The CHRONICLE.

CONGRESS *of the* UNITED STATES.

REPORT of the SECRETARY of the TREASURY on the Subject of a MINT.

The SECRETARY *of the* TREASURY *having attentively considered the subject referred to him, by the order of the* HOUSE *of* REPRESENTATIVES *of the the fifteenth day of April last, relatively to the Establishment of a* MINT, *most respectfully submits the result of his enquiries and reflections.*

A PLAN for an establishment of this nature involves a great variety of considerations, intricate, nice, and important. The general state of debtor and creditor; all the relations and consequences of PRICE; the essential interests of trade and industry; the value of all property; the whole income of the state and of individuals, are liable to be sensibly influenced, beneficially, or otherwise, by the judicious, or injudicious regulation of this interesting object.

It is one likewise, not more necessary than difficult to be rightly adjusted; one which has frequently occupied the reflections and researches of politicians, without having harmonised their opinions on one of the most important of the principles which enter into its discussion. Accordingly, different systems continue to be advocated, and the systems of different nations, after much investigation, continue to differ from each other.

But if a right adjustment of the matter be truly of such nicety and difficulty, a question naturally arises, whether it may not be most adviseable to leave things, in this respect, in the state in which they are? Why, might it be asked, since they have so long proceeded in a train, which has caused no general sensation of inconvenience, should alterations be attempted, the precise effect of which cannot with certainty be calculated?

The answer to this question is not perplexing —The immense disorder which actually reigns in so delicate and important a concern, and the still greater disorder which is every moment possible, call loudly for a reform. The dollar, originally contemplated in the money transactions of this country, by successive diminutions of its weight and fineness, has sustained a depreciation of 5 per cent. And yet the new dollar has a currency in all payments in place of the old, with scarcely any attention to the difference between them. The operation of this in depreciating the value of property, depending upon past contracts, and (as far as inattention to the alteration in the coin may be supposed to leave prices stationary) of all other property, is apparent. Nor can it require argument to prove, that a nation ought not to suffer the value of the property of its citizens to fluctuate with the fluctuations of a foreign mint, and to change with the changes in the regulations of a foreign sovereign. This, nevertheless, is the condition of one, which having no coins of its own, adopts with implicit confidence those of other countries.

The unequal values allowed in different parts of the Union to coins of the same intrinsic worth; the defective species of them, which embarrasses the circulation of some of the states; and the dissimilarity in their several monies of account, are inconveniences, which if not to be ascribed to the want of a national coinage, will at least be most effectually remedied by the establishment of one; a measure that will at the same time give additional security against impositions, by counterfeit as well as by base currencies.

It was with great reaſon, therefore, that the attention of Congreſs, under the late confederation, was repeatedly drawn to the eſtabliſhment of a mint; and it is with equal reaſon that the ſubject has been reſumed; now that the favourable change which has taken place in the ſituation of public affairs, admits of its being carried into execution.

But though the difficulty of deviſing a proper eſtabliſhment ought not to deter from undertaking ſo neceſſary a work; yet it cannot but inſpire diffidence in one, whoſe duty it is made, to propoſe a plan for the purpoſe, and may perhaps be permitted to be relied upon as ſome excuſe for any errors which may be chargeable upon it, or for any deviations from ſounder principles, which may have been ſuggeſted by others, or even in part acted upon by the former government of the United States.

In order to a right judgment of what ought to be done, the following particulars require to be diſcuſſed.

I. What ought to be the nature of the money unit of the United States?

II. What the proportion between gold and ſilver, if coins of both metals are to be eſtabliſhed?

III. What the proportion and compoſition of alloy in each kind?

IV. Whether the expence of coinage ſhall be defrayed by the government, or out of the material itſelf?

V. What ſhall be the number, denominations, ſizes, and devices of the coins?

VI. Whether foreign coins ſhall be permitted to be current or not; if the former, at what rate, and for what period?

A pre-requiſite to determining with propriety, what ought to be the money unit of the United States, is to endeavour to form as accurate an idea as the nature of the caſe will admit of what it actually is. The pound, though of various value, is the unit in the money of account of all the ſtates. But it is not equally eaſy to pronounce what is to be conſidered as the unit in the coins. There being no formal regulation on the point (the reſolutions of Congreſs of the 6th. of July, 1785, and 8th. of Auguſt, 1786, having never yet been carried into operation) it can only be inferred from uſage or practice. The manner of adjuſting foreign exchanges, would ſeem to indicate the dollar as beſt entitled to that character. In theſe, the old piaſter of Spain; or old Seville piece of eight *rials*, of the value of four ſhillings and ſix pence ſterling, is evidently contemplated. The computed par between Great-Britain and Pennſylvania, will ſerve as an example. According to that, one hundred pounds ſterling is equal to one hundred and ſixty-ſix pounds and two thirds of a pound Pennſylvania currency; which correſponds with the proportion between four ſhillings and ſix pence ſterling, and ſeven ſhillings and ſix pence the current value of the dollar in that ſtate, by invariable *uſage*. And, as far as the information of the Secretary goes, the ſame compariſon holds in the other ſtates.

But this circumſtance in favour of the dollar, loſes much of its weight from two conſiderations. That ſpecies of coin has never had any ſettled or ſtandard value, according to weight or fineneſs, but has been permitted to circulate by tale, without regard to either; very much as a mere money of convenience; while gold has had a fixed price by weight; and with an eye to its fineneſs. This greater ſtability of value of the gold coins, is an argument of force for regarding the money unit as having been hitherto virtually attached to gold, rather than to ſilver.

Twenty four grains and ſix eighths of a grain of fine gold, have correſponded with the nominal value of the dollar in the ſeveral ſtates; without regard to the ſucceſſive diminutions of its intrinſic worth.

But if the dollar ſhould, notwithſtanding, be ſuppoſed to have the beſt title to being conſidered as the preſent unit in the coins, it would remain to determine what kind of dollar ought to be underſtood, or, in other words, what preciſe quantity of fine ſilver.

The old piaſtre of Spain, which appears to have regulated our foreign exchanges, weighed 17 dwt. 12 grains, and contained 386 grains and 15 mites of fine ſilver. But this piece has been long ſince out of circulation. The dollars now in common currency are of recent date, and much inferior to that, both in weight and fineneſs. The average weight of them, upon different trials in large maſſes, has been found to be 17 dwts. 8 grains. Their fineneſs is leſs preciſely aſcertained; the reſults of various aſſays made by different perſons, under the direction of the late ſuperintendant of

the finances and of the Secretary, being as various as the assays themselves. The difference between their extremes is not less than 24 grains in a dollar, of the same weight and age; which is too much for any probable differences in the pieces. It is rather to be presumed that a degree of inaccuracy has been occasioned by the want of proper apparatus, and in general, of practice. The experiment which appears to have the best pretensions to exactness, would make the new dollar to contain 370 grains and 933 thousandth parts of a grain of pure silver.

According to an authority, on which the Secretary places reliance, the standard of Spain for its silver coin in the year 1761, was 261 parts fine and 27 parts alloy; at which proportion, a dollar of 17 dwt. 8 grains would consist of 377 grains of fine silver, and 39 grains of alley: But there is no question that this standard has been since altered considerably for the worse; to what precise point is not as well ascertained as could be wished; but from a computation of the value of dollars in the markets both of Amsterdam and London (a criterion which cannot materially mislead) the new dollar appears to contain 368 grains of fine silver, and that which immediately preceded it about 374 grains.

In this state of things, there is some difficulty in defining the dollar, which is to be understood as constituting the present money unit; on the supposition of its being most applicable to that species of coin. The old Seville piece of 386 grains and 15 mites fine, comports best with the computations of foreign exchanges, and with the more ancient contracts respecting landed property; but far the greater number of contracts still in operation concerning that kind of property, and all those of a merely personal nature, now in force, must be referred to a dollar of a different kind. The actual dollar at the time of contracting is the only one which can be supposed to have been intended, and it has been seen, that as long ago as the year 1761, there had been a material degradation of the standard. And even in regard to the more ancient contracts, no person has ever had any idea of a scruple about receiving the dollar of the day, as a full equivalent for the nominal sum, which the dollar originally imported.

A recurrence therefore to the ancient dollar would be, in the greatest number of cases, an innovation *in fact*, and in all, an innovation in respect to opinion. The actual dollar, in common circulation, has evidently a much better claim to be regarded as the actual money unit.

The mean intrinsic value of the different kinds of known dollars has been intimated as affording the proper criterion. But when it is recollected, that the more ancient and more valuable ones are not now to be met with at all in circulation, and that the mass of those generally current is composed of the newest and most inferior kinds, it will be perceived, that even an equation of that nature would be a considerable innovation upon the real present state of things; which it will certainly be prudent to approach, as far as may be consistent with the permanent order, designed to be introduced.

An additional reason for considering the prevailing dollar, as the standard of the present money unit, rather than the ancient one is, that it will not only be conformable to the true existing proportion between the two metals in this country, but will be more conformable to that which obtains in the commercial world, generally.

The difference established by custom in the United States between coined gold and coined silver, has been stated upon another occasion, to be nearly as 1 to 15.6. This, if truly the case, would imply that gold was extremely overvalued in the United States; for the highest *actual proportion* in any part of Europe, very little, if at all, exceeds 1 to 15: and the average proportion throughout Europe is probably not more than about 1 to 14 4-5. But that statement has proceeded upon the idea of the ancient dollar. One penny-weight of gold of 22 carrats fine at 6s. 8d. and the old Seville piece of 386 grains and 15 mites of pure silver at 7s. 6d, furnish the exact ratio of 1 to 15. 6262. But this does not coincide with the real difference between the metals, in our market, or, which is with us the same thing, in our currency. To determine this, the quantity of fine silver in the general mass of the dollars now in circulation, must afford the rule. Taking the rate of the late dollar of 374 grains, the proportion would be as 1 to 15.11—Taking the rate of the newest dollar, the proportion would then be as 1 to 14.87. The mean of the two would give the proportion of 1 to 15 very nearly: less than the legal proportion in the coins of Great Britain, which

is as 1 to 15.2; but somewhat more than the actual or market proportion, which is not quite 1 to 15.

The preceding view of the subject does not indeed afford a precise or certain definition of the present unit, in the coins, but it furnishes data, which will serve as guides in the progress of the investigation. It ascertains at least, that the sum in the money of account of each State corresponding with the nominal value of the dollar in such State, corresponds also with 24 grains and 6-8 of a grain of fine gold, and with something between 368 and 374 grains of fine silver.

The next enquiry towards a right determination of what ought to be the future money unit of the United States turns upon these questions—Whether it ought to be peculiarly attached to either of the metals, in preference to the other, or not? and if to either, to which of them?

The suggestions and proceedings hitherto have had for their object the annexing of it emphatically to the silver dollar. A resolution of Congress of the 6th of July, 1785, declares that the money unit of the United States shall be a dollar; and another resolution of the 8th of August, 1786, fixes that dollar at 375 grains and 54 hundredths of a grain of fine silver. The same resolution, however, determines, that there shall also be two gold coins, one of 246 grains and 268 parts of a grain of pure gold, equal to ten dollars, and the other of half that quantity of pure gold, equal to five dollars: And it is not explained, whether either of the two species of coins, of gold or silver, shall have any greater legality in payments, than the other. Yet it would seem, that a preference in this particular is necessary to execute the idea of attaching the unit exclusively to one kind. If each of them be as valid as the other, in payments to any amount, it is not obvious, in what effectual sense either of them can be deemed the money unit, rather than the other.

If the general declaration, that the dollar shall be the money unit of the United States, could be understood to give it a superior legality, in payments, the institution of coins of gold, and the declaration that each of them shall be *equal* to a certain number of dollars, would appear to destroy that inference: And the circumstance of making the dollar the unit in the money of account seems to be rather matter of form, than of substance.

Contrary to the ideas which have heretofore prevailed, in the suggestions concerning a coinage of the United States, though not without much hesitation, arising from a deference for those ideas, the Secretary is upon the whole strongly inclined to the opinion, that a preference ought to be given to neither of the metals for the money unit: Perhaps if either were to be preferred, it ought to be gold rather than silver.

The reasons are these———

The inducement to such a preference is to render the unit as little variable as possible, because on this depends the steady value of all contracts, and in a certain sense of all other property. And it is truly observed, that if the unit belong indiscriminately to both the metals, it is subject to all the fluctuations, that happen in the relative value, which they bear to each other: But the same reason would lead to annexing it to that particular one, which is itself the least liable to variation; if there be, in this respect, any discernable difference between the two.

Gold may, perhaps, in certain senses, be said to have greater stability than silver: as being of superior value, less liberties have been taken with it, in the regulations of different countries. Its standard has remained more uniform, and it has, in other respects, undergone fewer changes: as being not so much an article of merchandize, owing to the use made of silver in the trade with the East-Indies and China, it is less liable to be influenced by circumstances of commercial demand. And if reasoning by analogy, it could be affirmed, that there is a physical probability of greater proportional increase in the quantity of silver, than in that of gold, it would afford an additional reason for calculating on greater steadiness in the value of the latter.

As long as gold, either from its intrinsic superiority, as a metal, from its greater rarity, or from the prejudices of mankind, retains so considerable a pre-eminence in value, over silver, as it has hitherto had, a natural consequence of this seems to be that its condition will be more stationary. The revolutions, therefore, which may take place, in the comparative value of gold and silver, will be changes in the state of the latter rather than in the state of the former.

If there should be an appearance of too much abstraction in any of these ideas, it

may be remarked, that the first and most simple impressions do not naturally incline to giving a preference to the inferior or least valuable of the two metals.

It is sometimes observed, that silver ought to be encouraged rather than gold, as being more conductive to the extension of bank circulation, from the greater difficulty and inconvenience which its greater bulk, compared with its value, occasions in the transportation of it. But bank circulation is desirable, rather as an auxiliary to, than as a substitute for that of the precious metals; and ought to be left to its natural course—Artificial expedients to extend it, by opposing obstacles to the other, are at least not recommended by any very obvious advantages. And, in general, it is the safest rule to regulate every particular institution or object, according to the principles which in relation to itself, appear the most sound. In addition to this, it may be observed, that the inconvenience of transporting either of the metals, is sufficiently great to induce a preference of bank paper, whenever it can be made to answer the purpose equally well.

But upon the whole, it seems to be most advisable, as has been observed, not to attach the unit exclusively to either of the metals; because this cannot be done effectually, without destroying the office and character of one of them as money, and reducing it to the situation of a mere merchandise; which, accordingly, at different times has been proposed from different and very respectable quarters; but which would probably be a greater evil than occasional variations in the unit, from the fluctuations in the relative value of the metals, especially if care be taken to regulate the proportion between them, with an eye to their average commercial value.

To annul the use of either of the metals, as money, is to abridge the quantity of circulating medium; and is liable to all the objections, which arise from a comparison of the benefits of a full, with the evils of a scanty circulation.

It is not a satisfactory answer to say, that none but the favoured metal would, in this case, find its way into the country, as in that all balances must be paid. The practicability of this would in some measure depend on the abundance or scarcity of it, in the country paying—Where there was but little, it either would not be procurable at all, or it would cost a premium to obtain it—which, in every case of a competition with others, in a branch of trade, would constitute a deduction from the profits of the party receiving; perhaps, too, the embarrassments which such a circumstance might sometimes create, in the pecuniary liquidation of balances, might lend additional efforts to find a substitute in commodities, and might so far impede the introduction of the metals. Neither could the exclusion of either of them be deemed, in other respects, favourable to commerce. It is often, in the course of trade, as desirable to to possess the kind of money, as the kind of commodities, best adapted to a foreign market.

It seems, however, most probable that the chief, if not the sole effect of such a regulation, would be to diminish the utility of one of the metals. It could hardly prove an obstacle to the introduction of that which was excluded, in the natural course of trade; because it would always command a ready sale for the purpose of exportation to foreign markets. But such an effect, if the only one, is not to be regarded as a trivial inconvenience.

If then the unit ought not to be attached exclusively to either of the metals, the proportion which ought to subsist between them, in the coins, becomes a preliminary enquiry, in order to its proper adjustment. This proportion appears to be, in several views, of no inconsiderable moment.

One consequence of overvaluing either metal, in respect to the other, is the banishment of that which is undervalued. If two countries are supposed, in one of which the proportion of gold to silver is as one to sixteen, in the other as one to fifteen, gold being worth more, silver less, in one than in the other, it is manifest, that in their reciprocal payments, each will select that species which it values least, to pay to the other, where it is valued most. Besides this, the dealers in money will, from the same cause, often find a profitable traffick, in an exchange of the metals between the two countries. And hence, it would come to pass, if other things were equal, that the greatest part of the gold would be collected in one, and the greatest part of the silver in the other. The course of trade might in some degree counteract the tendency of the difference in the legal proportions, by the market value; but this is so far and so often influenced by the legal rates, that it does not prevent their producing the effect which is inferred. Facts too, verify the inference: In Spain and England where gold

is rated higher than in other parts of Europe, there is a ſcarcity of ſilver, while it is found to abound in France and Holland, where it is rated higher in proportion to gold, than in the neighbouring nation. And it is continually flowing from Europe to China and the Eaſt-Indies, owing to the comparative cheapneſs of it in the former, and dearneſs of it in the latter.

This conſequence is deemed by ſome not very material: and there are even perſons, who from a fanciful predilection to gold, are willing to invite it, even by a higher price. But general utility will beſt be promoted by a due proportion of both metals. If gold be moſt convenient in large payments, ſilver is beſt adapted to the more minute and ordinary circulation.

But it is to be ſuſpected, that there is another conſequence more ſerious than the one which has been mentioned. This is the diminution of the total quantity of ſpecie, which a country would naturally poſſeſs.

It is evident, that as often as a country, which over-rates either of the metals, receives a payment in that metal, it gets a leſs actual quantity than it ought to do, or than it would do, if a rate were a juſt one.

It is alſo equally evident, that there will be a continual effort to make payment to it in that ſpecies, to which it has annexed an exaggerated eſtimation, wherever it is current at a leſs proportional value. And it would ſeem to be a very natural effect of theſe two cauſes, not only that the maſs of the precious metals in the country in queſtion, would conſiſt chiefly of that kind, to which it had given an extraordinary value, but that it would be abſolutely leſs, than if they had been duly proportioned to each other,

A concluſion of this ſort, however, is to be drawn with great caution. In ſuch matters, there are always ſome local and many other particular circumſtances, which qualify and vary the operation of general principles, even where they are juſt; and there are endleſs combinations, very difficult to be analyzed, which often render principles, that have the moſt plauſible pretenſions, unſound and deluſive.

There ought, for inſtance, according to thoſe which have been ſtated, to have been formerly a greater quantity of gold in proportion to ſilver in the United States than there has been; becauſe the actual value of gold in this country, compared with ſilver, was perhaps higher than in any other. But our ſituation in regard to the Weſt-India iſlands, into ſome of which there is a large influx of ſilver directly from the mines of South America, occaſions an extraordinary ſupply of that metal, and conſequently a greater proportion of it in our circulation than might have been expected from its relative value.

What influence the proportion under conſideration may have upon the ſtate of prices, and how far this may counteract its tendency to increaſe or leſſen the quantity of the metals, are points not eaſy to be developed; and yet they are very neceſſary to an accurate judgment of the true operation of the thing.

But however impoſſible it may be to pronounce with certainty, that the poſſeſſion of a leſs quantity of ſpecie is a conſequence of overvaluing either of the metals, there is enough of probability in the conſiderations, which ſeem to indicate it, to form an argument of weight againſt ſuch overvaluation.

A third ill conſequence reſulting from it is, a greater and more frequent diſturbance of the ſtate of the money unit, by a greater and more frequent diverſity between the legal and market proportions of the metals. This has not hitherto been experienced in the United States, but it has been experienced elſewhere; and from its not having been felt by us hitherto, it does not follow that this will not be the caſe hereafter, when our commerce ſhall have attained a maturity, which will place it under the influence of more fixed principles.

In eſtabliſhing a proportion between the metals, there ſeems to be an option of one of two things—

To approach as nearly as it can be aſcertained, the mean or average proportion, in what may be called the commercial world; or

To retain that which now exiſts in the United States:—As far as theſe happen to coincide, they will render the courſe to be purſued more plain and more certain.

To aſcertain the firſt with preciſion, would require better materials than are poſſeſſed, or than could be obtained, without an inconvenient delay.

Sir Iſaac Newton, in a repreſentation to the treaſury of Great-Britain, in the year

1717, after ſtating the particular proportions in the different countries of Europe, concludes thus—" By the courſe of trade and exchange between nation and nation, in all Europe, fine gold is to fine ſilver as 14 4-5 or 15 to one."

But however accurate and deciſive this authority may be deemed in relation to the period to which it applies, it cannot be taken, at the diſtance of more than ſeventy years, as a rule for determining the exiſting proportion.

Alterations have ſince been made, in the regulations of their coins, by ſeveral nations; which, as well an the courſe of trade, have an influence upon the market values. Nevertheleſs, there is reaſon to believe that the ſtate of the matter, as repreſented by Sir Iſaac Newton, is not very remote from its actual ſtate.

In Holland, the greateſt money market in Europe, gold was to ſilver in December 1789, as 1 to 14,88; and in that of London it has been for ſome time paſt but little different, approaching perhaps ſomething nearer 1 to 15.

It has been ſeen, that the exiſting proportion between the two metals in this country, is about as 1 to 15.

It is fortunate in this reſpect, that the innovations of the Spaniſh mint have imperceptibly introduced a proportion ſo analogous, as this is, to that which prevails among the principal commercial nations; as it greatly facilitates a proper regulation of the matter. This proportion of 1 to 15 is recommended by the particular ſituation of our trade, as being nearly that which obtains in the market of Great-Britain, to which nation our ſpecie is principally exported. A lower rate for either of the metals in our market, than in theirs, might not only afford a motive the more in certain caſes to remit in ſpecie rather than in commodities; but it might in ſome others, cauſe us to pay a greater quantity of it for a given ſum, than we ſhould otherwiſe do. If the effect ſhould rather be to occaſion a premium to be given for the metal, which was under rated, this would obviate thoſe diſadvantages; but it would involve another, a cuſtomary difference between the market and legal proportions, which would amount to a ſpecies of diſorder in the national coinage.

Looking forward to the payments of intereſt hereafter to be made to Holland, the ſame proportion does not appear ineligible. The preſent legal proportion in the coins of Holland is ſtated at 1 to 14 9-10. That of the market varies ſomewhat at different times, but ſeldom very widely from this point.

There can hardly be a better rule, in any country, for the legal, than the market proportion; if this can be ſuppoſed to have been produced by the free and ſteady courſe of commercial principles. The preſumption, in ſuch caſe is, that each metal finds its true level, according to its intrinſic utility, in the general ſyſtem of money operations.

But it muſt be admitted, that this argument in favour of continuing the exiſting proportion, is not applicable to the ſtate of the coins with us. There have been too many artificial and heterogeneous ingredients, too much want of order in the pecuniary tranſactions of this country, to authoriſe the attributing the effects which have appeared, to the regular operations of commerce. A proof of this is to be drawn from the alterations, which have happened in the proportion between the metals, merely by the ſucceſſive degradations of the dollar, in conſequence of the mutability of a foreign mint. The value of gold to ſilver appears to have declined, wholly from this cauſe, from 15 6-10 to about 15 to 1. Yet as this laſt proportion, however produced, coincides ſo nearly with what may be deemed the commercial average, it may be ſuppoſed to furniſh as good a rule as can be purſued.

The only queſtion ſeems to be, whether the value of gold ought not to be a little lowered, to bring it to an exact level with the two markets which have been mentioned. But as the ratio of 1 to 15 is ſo nearly conformable to the ſtate of thoſe markets, and beſt agrees with that of our own, it will probably be found the moſt eligible. If the market of Spain continues to give a higher value to gold (as it has done in time paſt) than that which is recommended, there may be ſome advantage in a middle ſtation.

A further preliminary to the adjuſtment of the future money unit, is to determine what ſhall be the proportion and compoſition of alloy, in each ſpecies of the coins.

The firſt, by the reſolution of the 8th. of Auguſt, 1786, before referred to, is regulated at one twelfth, or, in other words, at 1 part alloy to 11 parts fine, whether gold or ſilver; which appears to be a convenient rule; unleſs there ſhould be ſome

collateral conſideration, which may dictate a departure from it. Its correſpondency, in regard to both metals, is a recommendation of it, becauſe a difference could anſwer no purpoſe of pecuniary or commercial utility, and uniformity is favourable to order.

This ratio, as it regards gold, coincides with the proportion, real or profeſſed, in the coins of Portugal, England, France and Spain. In thoſe of the two former it is real, in thoſe of the two latter there is a deduction for what is called *remedy of weight and alloy*, which is in the nature of an allowance to the maſter of the mint for errors and imperfections in the proceſs; rendering the coin either lighter or baſer than it ought to be. The ſame thing is known in the theory of the Engliſh mint, where 1-6 of a carat is allowed. But the difference ſeems to be, that there, it is merely an occaſional indemnity within a certain limit, for real and unavoidable errors and imperfections; whereas in the practice of the mints of France and Spain it appears to amount to a ſtated and regular deviation from the nominal ſtandard. Accordingly the real ſtandards of France and Spain are ſomething worſe than 22 carats or 11 parts in 12 fine.

The principal gold coins in Germany, Holland, Sweden, Denmark, Poland and Italy, are finer than thoſe of England and Portugal in different degrees, from 1 carat and 1-4 to 1 carat and 7-8, which laſt is within 1-8 of a carat of pure gold.

There are ſimilar diverſities in the ſtandards of the ſilver coins, of the different countries of Europe. That of Great Britain is 222 parts fine to 18 alloy; thoſe of the other European nations vary from that of Great-Britain as widely as from about 17 of the ſame parts better to 75 worſe.

The principal reaſons aſſigned for the uſe of alloy, are the ſaving of expence in the refining of the metals (which in their natural ſtate are uſually mixed with a portion of the coarſer kinds) and the rendering of them harder as a ſecurity againſt too great waſte by friction and wearing—The firſt reaſon, drawn from the original compoſition of the metals, is ſtrengthened at preſent by the practice of alloying their coins, which has obtained among ſo many nations. The reality of the effect, to which the laſt reaſon is applicable, has been denied, and experience has been appealed to as proving, that the more alloyed coins wear faſter than the purer. The true ſtate of this matter may be worthy of future inveſtigation, though firſt appearances are in favour of alloy. In the mean time, the ſaving of trouble and expence are ſufficient inducements to following thoſe examples which ſuppoſe its expediency. And the ſame conſiderations lead to taking as our models thoſe nations with whom we have moſt intercourſe, and whoſe coins are moſt prevalent in our circulation. Theſe are Spain, Portugal, England and France. The relation which the propoſed proportion bears to their gold coins has been explained. In reſpect to their ſilver coins, it will not be very remote from the mean of their ſeveral ſtandards.

The component ingredients of the alloy in each metal will alſo require to be regulated. In ſilver, copper is the only kind in uſe, and it is doubtleſs the only proper one. In gold there is a mixture of ſilver and copper; in the Engliſh coins conſiſting of equal parts, in the coins of ſome countries varying from 1-3 to 2-3 ſilver.

The reaſon of this union of ſilver with copper is this—The ſilver counteracts the tendency of the copper to injure the colour or beauty of the coin, by giving it too much redneſs, or rather a coppery hue; which a ſmall quantity will produce; and the copper prevents the too great whiteneſs, which ſilver alone would confer. It is apprehended, that there are conſiderations, which may render it prudent to eſtabliſh by law, that the proportion of ſilver to copper in the gold coins of the United States ſhall not be more than one half, nor leſs than one third; veſting a diſcretion in ſome proper place to regulate the matter within thoſe limits, as experience in the execution may recommend.

A third point remains to be diſcuſſed, as a pre-requiſite to the determination of the money unit, which is, whether the expence of coining ſhall be defrayed by the public, or out of the material itſelf; or, as it is ſometimes ſtated, whether coinage ſhall be free, or ſhall be ſubject to a duty or impoſition? This forms, perhaps, one of the niceſt queſtions in the doctrine of money.

The practice of different nations is diſſimilar in this particular. In England, coinage is ſaid to be entirely free: the mint price of the metals in bullion, being the ſame with the value of them in coin. In France there is a duty which has been, if it is not now, eight per cent. In Holland there is a difference between the mint price and the

value in the coins, which has been computed at .96, or something less than one per cent, upon gold; at 1.48, or something less than one and a half per cent. upon silver. The resolution of the 8th of August, 1786, proceeds upon the idea of a deduction of half per cent. from gold, and of two per cent, from silver, as an indemnification for the expence of coining. This is inferred from a report of the late board of treasury, upon which that resolution appears to have been founded.

Upon the supposition that the expence of coinage out to be defrayed ought of the metals, there are two ways in which it may be effected; one by a reduction of the quantity of fine gold and silver in the coins; the other by establishing a difference between the value of those metals, in the coins, and the mint price of them in bullion.

The first method appears to the Secretary inadmissiable. He is unable to distinguish an operation of this sort, from that of raising the denomination of the coin; a measure which has been disapproved of by the wisest men in the nations in which it has been practised, and condemned by the rest of the world. To declare that a less weight of gold or silver shall pass for the same sum which before represented a greater weight, or to ordain that the same weight shall pass for a greater sum, are things substantially of one nature. The consequence of either of them, if the change can be realised, is to degrade the money unit; obliging creditors to receive less than their just dues—and depreciating property of every kind: for it is manifest, that every thing would in this case be represented by a less quantity of gold and silver, than before.

It is sometimes observed on this head, that though any article of property might in fact be represented by a less actual quantity *of* pure metal, it would nevertheless be represented by something of the same intrinsic value. Every fabric, it is remarked, is worth intrinsically, the price of the raw material and the expence of fabrication; a truth not less applicable to a piece of coin, than to a yard of cloth.

This position, well founded in itself, is here misapplied. It supposes that the coins now in circulation, are to be considered as bullion, or in other words, as a raw material. But the fact is, that the adoption of them, as money, has caused them to become the fabric. It has invested them with the character and office of coins, and has given them a sanction and efficacy equivalent to that of the stamp of the sovereign. The prices of all our commodities, at home and abroad, and of all foreign commodities, in our markets, have found their level, in conformity to this principle. The foreign coins may he *divested* of the privilege they have hitherto been permitted to enjoy, and may of course be *left* to find their value in the markets, as a raw material. But the quantity of gold and silver in the national coins, corresponding with a given sum, cannot be made less than heretofore, without disturbing the balance of intrinsic value; and making every acre of land, as well as every bushel of wheat, of less actual worth than in time past. If the United States were insulated, and cut off from all intercourse with the rest of mankind, this reasoning would not be equally conclusive. But it appears decisive, when considered with a view to the relations which commerce has created between us and other countries.

It is however not improbable, that the effect meditated would be defeated by a rise of prices, proportioned to the diminution of the intrinsic value of the coins. This might be looked for in every enlightened commercial country; but perhaps in none with greater certainty than this: because, in none, are men less liable to be the dupes of sounds—in none has authority so little resource for substituting names to things.

A general revolution in prices, though only nominally, and in appearance, could not fail to distract the ideas of the community, and would be apt to breed discontents, as well among all those who live on the income of their money, as among the poorer class of the people, to whom the necessaries of life would seem to have become dearer. In the confusion of such a state of things, ideas of value would not improbably adhere to the old coins, which from that circumstance, instead of feeling the effect of the loss of their privilege as money, would perhaps bear a price in the market relatively to the new ones, in exact proportion to weight. The frequency of the demand for the metals to pay foreign balances would contribute to this effect.

Among the evils, attendant on such an operation, are these—creditors both of the public and of individuals would lose a part of their property—public and private credit would receive a wound—the effective revenues of the government would be diminished. There is scarcely any point, in the economy of national affairs of great-

er moment, than the uniform preſervation of the intrinſic value of the money unit. On this the ſecurity and ſteady value of property eſſentially depend.

The ſecond method, therefore, of defraying the expence of the coinage out of the metals, is greatly to be preferred to the other. This is to let the ſame ſum of money continue to repreſent in the new coins exactly the ſame quantity of gold and ſilver, as it does in thoſe now current—to allow, at the mint, ſuch a price only for theſe metals as will admit of profit juſt ſufficient to ſatisfy the expence of coinage—to aboliſh the legal currency of foreign coins, both in public and private payments—and of courſe to leave the ſuperior utility of the national coins, for domeſtic purpoſes, to operate the difference of market value, which is neceſſary to induce the bringing of bullion to the mint. In this caſe, all property and labour will ſtill be repreſented by the ſame quantity of gold and ſilver, as formerly; and the only change which will be wrought, will conſiſt in annexing the office of money excluſively to the national coins; conſequently, withdrawing it from thoſe of foreign countries, and ſuffering them to become, as they ought to be, mere articles of merchandiſe.

The arguments in favour of a regulation of this kind, are—Firſt, That the want of it is a cauſe of extra expence: there being then no motive of individual intereſt to diſtinguiſh between the national coins and bullion, they are, it is alledged, indiſcriminately melted down, for domeſtic manufactories, and exported for the purpoſes of foreign trade; and it is added, that when the coins become light, by wearing, the ſame quantity of fine gold or ſilver bears a higher price in bullion than in coins; in which ſtate of things the melting down of the coins to be ſold as bullion, is attended with profit; and from both cauſes the expence of the mint, or in other words the expence of maintaining the ſpecie capital of the nation, is materially augmented.

Secondly—That the exiſtence of ſuch a regulation promotes a favorable courſe of exchange, and benefits trade, not only by that circumſtance, but by obliging foreigners in certain caſes, to pay dearer for domeſtic commodities, and to ſell their own cheaper.

As far as relates to the tendency of a free coinage to produce an increaſe of expence, in the different ways that have been ſtated, the argument muſt be allowed to have foundation, both in reaſon and in experience. It deſcribes what has been exemplified in Great-Britain.

The effect of giving an artificial value to bullion, is not at firſt ſight obvious; but it actually happened, at the period immediately preceding the late reformation in the gold coin of the country juſt named. A pound troy in gold bullion of ſtandard fineneſs, was then, from 19s. 6d. to 25s. ſterling, dearer than an equal weight of guineas, as delivered at the mint. The phenomenon is thus accounted for—the old guineas were more than than two per cent. lighter than their *ſtandard weight*. This *weight* therefore, in bullion, was truly worth two per cent. more, than thoſe guineas. It conſequently had in reſpect to them, a correſpondent riſe in the market.

And as guineas were then current by *tale*, the new ones, as they iſſued from the mint, were confounded in circulation with the old ones; and by the aſſociation, were depreciated below the intrinſic value, in compariſon with bullion. It became of courſe a profitable traffic to ſell bullion for coin, to ſelect the light pieces, and re-iſſue them in currency, and to melt down the heavy ones, and ſell them again as bullion. This practice, beſides other inconveniencies, coſt the government large ſums, in the renewal of the coins.

But the remainder of the arguments ſtands upon ground far more queſtionable. It depends upon very numerous and very complex combinations; in which there is infinite latitude for ſallacy and error.

The moſt plauſible part of it is that which relates to the courſe of exchange. Experience, in France, has ſhewn, that the market price of bullion has been influenced by the mint difference, between that and coin; ſometimes to the full extent of the difference, and it would ſeem to be a clear inference, that whenever that difference materially exceeded the charges of remitting bullion, from the country where it exiſted, to another in which coinage was free, exchange would be in favour of the former.

If, for inſtance, the balance of trade, between France and England, were at any time equal, their merchants would naturally have reciprocal payments to make to an equal amount; which as uſual would be liquidated by means of bills of exchange. If in this ſituation, the difference between coin and bullion ſhould be in the market, as at the mint of France, 8 per cent.; if alſo the charges of tranſporting money from

France to England should not be above 2 per cent.; and if exchange should be at par, it is evident, that a profit of 6 per cent. might be made, by sending bullion from France to England and drawing bills for the amount. One hundred louis d'ors in coin would purchase the weight of 108 in bullion; one hundred of which remitted to England would suffice to pay a debt of an equal amount: and two being paid for the insurance and transportation, there would remain six for the benefit of the person who should manage the negociation. But as so large a profit could not fail to produce competition, the bills in consequence of this would decrease in price, till the profit were reduced to the *minimum* of an adequate recompence for the trouble and risk. And as the amount of 100 louis d'ors, in England, might be afforded for 96 in France, with a profit of more than 1¼ per cent. bills upon England might fall in France to 4 per cent. below par.; one per cent being a sufficient profit to the exchanger or broker for the management of the business.

But it is *admitted* that this advantage is lost, when the balance of trade is against the nation, which imposes the duty in question; because by encreasing the demand for bullion, it brings this to a par with the coins; and it is to be *suspected*, that where commercial principles have their free scope, and are well understood, the market difference between the metals in coin and bullion will seldom approximate to that of the mint, if the latter be considerable. It must be not a little difficult to keep the money of the world, which can be employed to an equal purpose, in the commerce of the world, in a state of degradation, in comparison with the money of a particular country.

This alone would seem sufficient to prevent it: whenever the price of coin to bullion, in the market, materially exceeded the par of the metals, it would become an object to send the bullion abroad; if not to pay a foreign balance, to be invested in some other way, in foreign countries, where it bore a superior value: an operation, by which immense fortunes might be amassed, if it were not, that the exportation of the bullion would of itself restore the intrinsic par. But as it would naturally have this effect, the advantage supposed would contain in itself the principle of its own destruction. As long, however, as the exportation of bullion could be made with profit, which is as long as exchange could remain below par, there would be a drain of the gold and silver of the country.

If any thing can maintain for a length of time a material difference, between the value of metals in coin and in bullion, it must be a constant and considerable balance of trade, in favour of the country in which it is maintained. In one situated like the United States, it would in all probability be a hopeless attempt. The frequent demand for gold and silver, to pay balances to foreigners, would tend powerfully to preserve an equilibrium of intrinsic value.

The prospect is, that it would occasion foreign coins, to circulate by common consent, nearly at par with the national.

To say, that as far as the effect of lowering exchange is produced, though it be only occasional and momentary, there is a benefit the more thrown into the scale of public prosperity, is not satisfactory. It has been seen, that it may be productive of one evil, the investment of a part of the national capital in foreign countries; which can hardly be beneficial, but in a situation like that of the United Netherlands, where an immense capital and a decrease of internal demand render it necessary to find employment for money, in the wants of other nations: and, perhaps, on a close examination, other evils may be descried.

One allied to that, which has been mentioned, is this—Taking France, for the sake of more concise illustration, as the scene. Whenever it happens that French louis d'ors are sent abroad, from whatever cause, if there be a considerable difference between coin and bullion, in the market of France, it will constitute an advantageous traffic to send back these louis d'ors and bring away bullion, in lieu of them; upon all of which exchanges, France must sustain an actual loss of a part of its gold and silver.

Again, such a difference between coin and bullion may tend to counteract a favourable balance of trade. Whenever a foreign merchant is the carrier of his own commodities to France, for sale, he has a strong inducement to bring back specie, instead of French commodities; because a return in the latter may afford no profit, may even be attended with loss; in the former, it will afford a certain profit. The same principle must be supposed to operate in the general course of remittances, from France to other countries. The principal question with a merchant naturally is—In what manner can I realize a given sum, with most advantage, where I wish to place it? And,

in cafes, in which other commodities are not likely to produce equal profit with bullion, it may be expected that this will be preferred; to which the greater certainty attending the operation, muft be an additional incitement. There can hardly be imagined a circumftance, lefs friendly to trade, than the exiftence of an extra inducement, arifing from the poffibility of a profitable fpeculation, upon the articles themfelves, to export from a country its gold and filver, rather than the products of its land and labour.

The other advantages fuppofed, of obliging foreigners to pay dearer for domeftic commodities, and to fell their own cheaper, are applied to a fituation, which includes a favourable balance of trade. It is underftood in this fenfe—The prices of domeftic commodities (fuch at leaft as are peculiar to the country) remain attached to the denominations of the coins—When a favourable balance of trade realizes in the market the mint difference between coin and bullion, foreigners, who muft pay in the latter, are obliged to give more of it for fuch commodities, than they otherwife would do. Again, the bullion, which is now obtained at a cheaper rate in the home market, will procure the fame quantity of goods in the foreign market, as before; which is faid to render foreign commodities cheaper. In this reafoning, much fallacy is to be fufpected: If it be true, that foreigners pay more for domeftic commodities, it muft be equally true, that they get more for their own, when they bring them themfelves to market. If peculiar, or other domeftic commodities, adhere to the denominations of the coins, no reafon occurs why foreign commodities of a like character fhould not do the fame thing.—And in this cafe, the foreigner, though he receive only the fame value in coin for his merchandife, as formerly, can convert it into a greater quantity of bullion. Whence the nation is liable to lofe more of its gold and filver, than if their intrinfic value in relation to the coins, were preferved. And whether the gain or the lofs, will on the whole preponderate, would appear to depend on the comparative proportion of active commerce of the one country with the other.

It is evident, alfo, that the nation muft pay as much gold and filver as before, for the commodities which it procures *abroad*, and whether it obtains this gold and filver cheaper, or not, turns upon the folution of the queftion juft intimated, refpecting the relative proportion of active commerce, between the two countries.

Befides thefe confiderations, it is admitted in the reafoning, that the advantages fuppofed, which depend on a favourable balance of trade, have a tendency to affect that balance difadvantageoufly. Foreigners, it is allowed, will in this cafe, feek fome other vent for their commodities, and fome other market, where they can fupply their wants at an eafier rate. A tendency of this kind, if real, would be a fufficient objection to the regulation. Nothing which contributes to change a beneficial current of trade, can well compenfate, by particular advantages, for fo injurious an effect. It is far more eafy to transfer trade, from a lefs to a more favourable channel, than when once transferred, to bring it back to its old one. Every fource of artificial interruption to an advantageous current is, therefore, cautioufly to be avoided.

It merits attention, that the able miniter, who lately and fo long prefided over the finances of France, does not attribute to the duty of coinage, in that country, any particular advantages, in relation to exchange and trade. Though he rather appears an advocate for it, 'tis on the fole ground of the revenue it affords, which he repreferts, as in the nature of a very moderate duty on the general mafs of exportation.

And it is not improbable, that to the fingular felicity of fituation of that kingdom, is to be attributed its not having been fenfible of the evils which feem incident to the regulation. There is perhaps no part of Europe, which has fo little need of other countries, as France. Comprehending a variety of foils and climates, an immenfe population, its agriculture in a ftate of mature improvement, it poffeffes within its own bofom, moft, if not all the productions of the earth, which any of its moft favoured neighbours can boaft. The variety, abundance, and excellence of its wines, conftitute a peculiar advantage in its favour. Arts and manufactures are there alfo in a very advanced ftate—fome of them of conficderable importance, in higher perfection than elfewhere. Its contiguity to Spain, the intimate nature of its connexion with that country; a country with few fabrics of its own, confequently numerous wants, and the principal receptacle of the treafures of the new world. Thefe circumftances concur, in fecuring to France, fo uniform, and fo conficderable a balance of trade, as in a great meafure to counteract the natural tendency of any errors, which may exift in the fyftem of her mint; and to render inferences from the operation of that fyftem

there, in reference to this country, more liable to miſlead, than to inſtruct. Nor ought it to paſs unnoticed, that with all theſe advantages, the government of France has found it neceſſary, on ſome occaſions, to employ very violent methods to compel the bringing of bullion to the mint; a circumſtance, which affords a ſtrong preſumption of the inexpediency of the regulation, and of the impracticability of executing it in the United States.

(To be concluded next month.)

HISTORICAL SKETCH *of the Proceedings of* CONGRESS *during their Third Seſſion, commencing on the 6th. December,* 1790, *in the city of* PHILADELPHIA.

THE Preſident, in his ſpeech to both houſes of congreſs, at the commencement of the ſeſſion, exhibited a comprehenſive, but pleaſing view of the national proſperity, under the new ſyſtem of general government. The advancement of public credit was evinced by the riſe of American ſtocks abroad, as well as at home, and the facility with which a conſiderable loan had been negociated in Holland, during the receſs. The productiveneſs of the revenues, beyond any calculation, afforded a proof of the fertility of the publick reſources, and inſured a further increaſe of national reſpectability and credit, while the punctuality with which the duties had been paid, bore an honourable teſtimony to the integrity of the commercial part of the community, and of their attachment to the federal government. Kentucky had applied for admiſſion into the Union as a diſtinct member. He informed them, that, in conſequence of incurſions on the frontier ſettlements, by certain banditti and tribes of Indians, he had, during the receſs, authoriſed an expedition into their country, the event of which was yet unknown to him.

He then enumerated thoſe national objects, which would ſeem to demand the attention of congreſs during the ſeſſion. The embarraſſments to which our commerce and agriculture might be expoſed, in caſes of war among the maritime powers of Europe, ſeemed to point out the policy of adopting ſuch meaſures, as ſhould have a tendency to encourage our own navigation, and thereby place us in a ſituation leſs dependent on foreign bottoms. The unfavourable ſtate of the Mediterranean trade, would demand their ſerious deliberations. The improvement of the judiciary ſyſtem, and ſome legiſlative proviſion for regulating the exerciſe of the juriſdiction of conſuls, were alſo recommended to their attention.——The eſtabliſhment of the militia, of a mint, of ſtandards of weights and meaſures, and of the poſt-office and poſt-roads, had already been before congreſs. Theſe important ſubjects he preſumed, they would now reſume of courſe.

From the ſufficiency of the revenues already appropriated, he doubted not that ample proviſion would be made for fulfilling the other pecuniary engagements, for which the publick faith ſtood plighted. He expreſſed a hope that congreſs would not only provide for the payment of the intereſt of the funded debt, but that they would endeavour, as far and as faſt as the growing reſources of the country would permit, to exonerate it of the principal itſelf. The ſpeedy application of the weſtern lands to this ſalutary purpoſe would be a meaſure, at once highly conducive to the public intereſt, and ſatisfactory to the wiſhes of the people——He concluded with aſſurances of his zealous co-operation in whatever meaſures might have a tendency ſtill further to promote the public good; and thus render the government more and more the object of popular attachment and confidence.

Both houſes, in their anſwers to the Preſident's ſpeech, expreſſed their unanimous congratulations, on the favourable ſtate and auſpicious proſpect of public affairs. They aſſured him that the various objects recommended to their conſideration, ſhould meet with that degree of attention on their parts, to which their reſpective merits and importance would entitle them, They concluded with aſſurances of their anxious deſire, and conſtant endeavours, to concur with him in every meaſure, calculated to increaſe the public happineſs, and ſtrengthen the attachment of their fellow-citizens to the eſtabliſhed government.

In the Prefident's fpeech, and in both anfwers, the principal feature was that of an earneft defire to promote the general happinefs and profperity of the Union. Seldom have the various branches of fupreme authority been thus united, in any country, even the moft free, in their endeavours to fecure the rights, and promote the intereffs, of the people. Either thofe rights have been defpifed and thofe intereffs difregarded, or the government has been fo conftructed or circumftanced as to produce continual jarrings among its own members, and engender a party fpirit, deftructive of that harmony, without which it is impoffible that any government fhould long merit, or enjoy, the confidence of the people. Even in Great-Britain, the pride of Europe, the public meafures brought forward by the miniftet have been implicitly fupported by one party, and violently oppofed by another; as if the miniftet and not the meafure were the fole object of legiflative fupport or oppofition. Need we wonder then, that miniftets, knowing that they muft contend with a ftrenuous oppofition, on all occafions, be their meafures *right* or *wrong*, have had recourfe to undue means to obtain a majority of votes in the legiflature? Happily for the United States, their government is fo organized, that no fuch party fpirit, no fuch corrupt influence, is to be apprehended. Their civil rulers are the people themfelves, condenfed, as it were, into a fmaller compafs. The animating principle of equal reprefentation carries health and vigour through every part of the body politick. All authority is acknowledged to refide in the people, and as no power is exercifed that is not derived from them, no caufe of oppofition to the meafures of government exifts. The conftitution, too, has wifely connected the intereft of the legiflator with his duty, by rendering him dependent on the people, at fhort periods, for a renewal of his feat. If he has acted improperly he cannot expect to be re-elected; but muft return to his private ftation, and fhare the pernicious confequences refulting from his own injudicious acts. Thus it appears, that in thefe United States the intereffs of the people and of the government are the fame. May our citizens duly prize the advantages they enjoy; and guard, with vigilance, againft the only danger they have to fear, a danger, at the moft diftant apprehenfion of which every citizen of America ought to be alarmed;——it is fcarcely neceffary to inform the American reader, that we allude to—*Difunion*.

State-jealoufies and local intereffs, it is true, are daily giving way to a diffufive liberality of fentiment, and the general welfare of the Union. It ought to be the firft object of our citizens to cherifh thefe falutary difpofitions; and to elect none but men of fimilar fentiments, to reprefent them in the general government—men who will conftder themfelves as the reprefentatives, not of the partial diftrict in which they are chofen, but of United America.

But, to indulge farther in thefe reflections, which have been fuggefted by the happy change that has taken place, in the political ftuation of the United States, in the courfe of the laft two years, would carry us too far from our immediate object. We fhall therefore proceed to give a fketch of the moft important proceedings of congrefs during the feffion, tracing each fubject from its origin to its final iffue, before we enter upon any other. We fhall afterwards give a fummary of the lefs intereffing tranfactions, excluding, however, every thing of a private nature, fuch as the greater part of petitions and memorials; and fhall conclude with a brief view of the unfinifhed bufinefs of the feffion.

At the commencement of the feffion, it was refolved that each member fhould be furnifhed with three news-papers. The right Rev. Dr. White and the Rev. Dr. Blair were appointed chaplains, to officiate in the fenate-chamber and houfe of repreffentatives, alternately. And fundry refolves, refpecting various objects recommended to the attention of congrefs in the Prefident's fpeech, were entered into, and referred to committees, to bring in bills accordingly; the difcuffions of thefe will appear in their proper places.

A few days after the meeting of congrefs, the Secretary of the treafury tranfmitted to the houfe of repreffentatives, a report, which he had prepared agreeably to an order of the houfe, at their fecond feffion. This ftated what further provifion the Secretary judged neceffary, for eftablifhing the public credit.

Of the State debts 21.500.000 dol. were affumed by congrefs at their fecond feffion: On this amount, intereft would commence from the 1ft Jan. 1792. For the payment of this intereft 788.333 dollars, annually, would be required; which, together with an eftimated deficiency, of 38,291 dollars, in the funds appropriated to the payment

of intereſt, accruing on the original debt of the United States, would leave 826.624 dollars, for which funds were to be provided.

He propoſed that this ſum ſhould be raiſed by additional duties on imported ſpirits, and by laying duties on ſpirits diſtilled within the United States. The product of theſe he eſtimated as follows :

	Dollars.
4000.000 gallons imported ſpirits, at 8 cents additional duty,	320.000
3.500.000 gallons diſtilled in the United States, from foreign materials, at 11 cents, - - - - - - - - -	385.000
3.000.000 gallons diſtilled in the United States, from materials of their own growth, at 9 cents, - - - - -	270.000
	975.000
Deduct, for drawbacks and expenſe of collection, 10 per cent,	97.500
Net product, - - - -	877.500

This computed product would exceed the ſum neceſſary to be provided, 50.875 dollars, which overplus, if it ſhould be realized, might be beneficially applied towards increaſing the fund for ſinking the publick debt.

Various arguments, to ſhew the propriety of having recourſe to this ſpecies of revenue, in preference to any other, were made uſe of by the Secretary. He obſerved, that there was ſcarcely an attitude in which this object preſented itſelf, that did not invite, by all the inducements of ſound policy and publick good, to take a ſtrong and effectual hold of it. To determine the mode of collection proper to be adopted, ſeemed to be the moſt difficult point. There were two leading principles, one of which muſt characterize whatever plan ſhould be agreed upon. One reſted the ſecurity of the revenue «n the *vigilance* of the *publick officers*; the other, on the *integrity* of the *individuals*, whoſe intereſt it was to avoid the payment of it. The plan ſubmitted by the Secretary was founded upon the former, experience having proved that but little dependence could be placed on the latter. It would be unproductive. It would operate unequally, and prove a diſcouragement to the honeſt and induſtrious; for the meritorious part of the community would bear almoſt the whole of the burthen. It would lead to frequent violations of oaths, and render ſuch violations familiar; and by thus looſening one of the ſtrongeſt bands of ſociety, would render life and property inſecure, while it injured the religion and morals of the people. He remarked that the two great objections to exciſe laws; viz. the *ſummary juriſdiction* confided to *exciſe officers*, in derogation from the courſe of the common law, and the right of trial by jury; and the power veſted in them, of *viſiting and ſearching*, *indiſcriminately*, the dwelling houſes, and other buildings, of dealers in exciſed liquors, would be inapplicable to the plan propoſed. No ſummary juriſdiction was to be permitted; and the diſcretionary power of ſearching was to be reſtricted to thoſe places, which the dealers themſelves ſhould deſignate, as the depoſitories of the dutied articles. Duties of this kind were by no means novel in the United States. They had been laid by ſeveral of the State governments, particularly in Pennſylvania, Maſſachuſetts, and Connecticut. In the laſt, all foreign articles of conſumption, generally, had been ſubject to an exciſe or inland duty.

The next object of the Secretary's arguments was, to ſhow that an exciſe would be preferable to a land-tax. " If, ſaid he, the ſuppoſition that taxes of this kind are attended with greater expence in the collection than taxes on land, ſhould ſeem an argument for preferring the latter; it may be obſerved, the fact ought not too readily to be taken for granted. The ſtate of things in England is ſometimes referred to as an example on this point. But there the ſmallneſs of the expence in the collection of the land-tax, is to be aſcribed to the peculiar modification of it; which proceeding without new aſſeſſments, according to a fixed ſtandard, long ſince adjuſted, totally diſregards the comparative value of lands, and the variations in their value. The conſequence of this is an inequality, ſo palpable and extreme, as would be likely to be ill relished by the landholders of the United States. If, in purſuit of greater equality, accurate periodical valuations or aſſeſſments are to afford a rule, it may well be doubted whether the expence of a land tax will not always exceed that of the kind of duties propoſed."

" The ingenious, but fallacious hypotheſis, that all taxes on conſumption fall final-

ly, with accumulated weight, on land, is now too generally and too satisfactorily exploded, to require to be combated here. It has become an acknowledged truth, that in the operation of those taxes, every species of capital and industry contribute their proportion to the revenue; and, consequently, that as far as they can be made substitutes for taxes on lands, they serve to exempt them from an undue share of the public burthen."

It would moreover be found policy to reserve houses and lands for some great occasion, which should engage the feelings of the whole community. The landholder would contribute much more cheerfully, when he saw that nothing short of the most urgent necessity had induced government to lay a direct tax on his property. The reservation of such a sure and capital source of revenue would show foreigners, that we were in a situation that rendered us capable of resenting their insults and repelling their injuries. It would moreover have a very favourable influence on the public credit, when it was known, that though new provisions were made, yet this certain and productive resource was still reserved. But to impose a land tax at this time might be productive of very unfavourable effects upon the national respectability and credit, by discovering something like an appearance of the public resources being exhausted.

The impolicy of attempting to raise the required funds by additional duties on imported articles was expatiated upon at considerable length. Those duties, the Secretary observed, could not be extended, without contravening the general sense of the merchants; and though this circumstance ought not to be admitted, as a general rule for concluding against the expediency of a publick measure, yet, it ought certainly to be attended to, in the present instance. That meritorious class of citizens had hitherto seconded the operations of the general government, with alacrity; and looked forward, with an accommodating temper, to the new duties which would commence with the year 1791; it might, therefore, be unadviseable to exceed those bounds which they deemed reasonable and proper, or to give them reason to suppose, that trade alone was destined to feel the whole weight of providing for the publick exigencies, on every emergency. Exorbitant duties, though ultimately paid by the consumer, would be severely felt by the merchant in the first instance. Most of the duties must be paid, previous to any receipts from the sale of the dutied articles; hence it was evident, that if the duties were disproportioned to the mercantile capital of the country, not only too large a share of this capital would be diverted from its proper channel, but such large advances on account of duties would be really injurious to commerce. This inconvenience would be very sensibly felt in those places which were destitute of the advantage of publick banks, and which abounded least in pecuniary resources.—A further extension of the impost duties, it was to be feared, would prove injurious to publick credit, by giving rise to apprehensions, that this artificial augmentation would be productive of a real diminution of the revenue. Doubts would arise, whether a better substitute would be provided in future. It might naturally be inferred, that a want of other means, or an inability to command them, had given birth to the inauspicious effort to draw all from this one source. But sound policy required that the funds should be diversified on other accounts. The sole dependence of government ought not to be placed on any one species of funds; much less on one liable to fluctuation from the vicissitudes and interruptions of our intercourse with foreign countries. It would therefore be acting wisely, to provide a variety of funds, and to unite internal with external objects. The Secretary concluded this report, with a recommendation to congress, to make certain alterations in the regulations respecting the collection of duties on wines and teas.

(To be continued.)

INTELLIGENCE.

A VOTE has passed both houses of the Legislature of the State of New-York, directing the Treasurer of that State to subscribe *seventy five thousand dollars* to the Bank of the United States; and also to subscribe the certificates of national debt held by that State, to the loan proposed by Congress in their Act of 4th August, 1790.

The Houſe of Repreſentatives of Pennſylvania have appointed a committee to bring in a bill to appropriate a ſum of money, for the purpoſe of building a houſe for the Preſident of the United States, a federal hall for both houſes of Congreſs, and offices for the different departments under the general government. The buildings to revert to the State upon the removal of congreſs to the place of their permanent reſidence.

The noted Daniel Shays is now confined in jail at Bennington, for a debt under ten pounds.

The lateſt accounts from the continent of Europe inform us, that, notwithſtanding the diſmal picture of French affairs, continually exhibited in the Britiſh newſpapers, that country enjoys a degree of tranquility that could ſcarcely have been expected ſo ſoon after the convulſions to which the late revolution neceſſarily gave riſe. Theſe are now happily ſubſided, and no apprehenſion of a counter-revolution exiſts. The national aſſembly, acting under the influence of enlightened freedom, have diſcovered, in all their meaſures, an inviolable attachment to the rights of men. Proceeding on the broad baſis of Juſtice, they have generouſly atoned for the former tyranny of France, in exiling her proteſtant ſubjects, and confiſcating their property, by paſſing a decree, that the property thus confiſcated, ſhall be reſtored to the poſterity of thoſe injured exiles.——The finances of France appear to be in a flouriſhing ſituation; and the aſſignats (paper money) iſſued on the credit of the church lands, which are appropriated as a fund for their redemption, have riſen conſiderably above par.

Since the Empreſs of Ruſſia negociated a peace with Sweden, ſhe has been able to turn her whole force againſt the Turks; and her arms have been attended with a conſiderable degree of ſucceſs. Humanity ſhudders at the bare recital of the barbarous manner in which the war, between thoſe two powers is carried on. Quarter is ſeldom given. On the 22d. of December laſt, the Ruſſians carried the fortreſs of Iſmail, by ſtorm; and the whole garriſon, except about 400 men, were put to the ſword. —The number maſſacred amounted to about 12000. Great Britain, and ſome of the powers in alliance with her, have come forward as mediators, in endeavouring to bring about a peace; but the haughty Czarina will not liſten to them at preſent. Doubtleſs the different nations of Europe will find it their intereſt to curb the ambition of Ruſſia; and to prevent the expulſion of the Turks from Europe. England, it is ſaid, has declared her intention to ſend a fleet of 24 ſail to the Baltic, and another of 10 ſail to the Mediterranean, in the ſpring, unleſs Ruſſia ſhall have begun, before that time, a plan of pacification with the Porte, upon equitable terms.

The Spaniſh government trembles, leſt the contagious ſpirit of Liberty ſhould break out in that country. We have had ſome vague accounts, of the people having actually demanded a reſtoration of their ancient cortez, or parliaments.

The *Belgick States* are no longer able to reſiſt the Imperial forces. Their return to their former allegiance is now inevitable; nor can we regret that they have failed in their attempts, when we conſider that they were not actuated by a love of liberty, but were mere dupes to the fanaticiſm of their prieſts, who firſt took up arms in conſequence of the abolition of ſome of the ancient eſtabliſhments of the prieſthood, by the late Emperor Joſeph. The people will, in all probability, be happier under the ſway of the mild Leopold, than if they had continued to be the ſlaves of bigotted prieſts.

APPOINTMENTS

Made by the Preſident of the United States, by and with the advice and conſent of the Senate.

David Humphreys, Eſq. Miniſter Reſident from the United States to the court of Portugal.

Nathaniel Chipman, Judge; Stephen Jacobs, Attorney; and Lewis R. Morris, Marſhall; of the diſtrict of Vermont. Stephen Keyes, Collector for the port of Allburgh, in the State of Vermont.

SUPERVISORS *of the* EXCISE.

Joſhua Wentworth, *New-Hampſhire*; Nathaniel Gorham, *Maſſachuſetts*; John S. Dexter, *Rhode-Iſland*; John Cheſter, *Connecticut*; Noah Smith, *Vermont*; William S. Smith, *New-York*; Aaron Dunham, *N. Jerſey*; George Clymer, *Penſylvania*; Henry Latimer, *Delaware*; George Gale, *Maryland*; Edward Carrington, *Virginia*; William Polk, *North-Carolina*; Daniel Stephens, *South-Carolina*; John Mathews, *Georgia*.

MILITARY APPOINTMENTS.

Arthur St. Clair, *Major-general*; Samuel Hodgdon, *Quarter-maſter*; John Hurt, *Chaplain*.

1ſt. REGIMENT.

Majors.

David Zeigler, vice Wyllys, killed; Richard Call, vice Parker, (*Virginia*) declined.

Captains.

Thomas Doyle, vice Zeigler promoted; John Armſtrong, vice Mercer, reſigned; John Pratt, vice Heart, promoted.

Lieutenants.

Cornelius Sedam, vice Doyle, promoted; John Jeffers, vice Frothingham, killed; Abner Pryor, vice Armſtrong, promoted; Aſa Hartſhorne, vice Heart, promoted; Thomas Seayres, vice Steele, declined.

Enſigns.

Daniel Britt, *Pennſylvania*; Hamilton Armſtrong, *ditto*; Bartholomew Shomburgh, promoted from ſerjeant-major; Bernard Gaines, *Virginia*; John Wade *Pennſylvania*; Roſs Burd, *ditto*.

2d. REGIMENT.

John Doughty (*New-Jerſey*) Lieutenant col. commandant; Lemuel Freſcott, (*Maſſachuſetts*) 1ſt. major; John Burnham, (*ditto*) 2d. ditto. Jonathan Hart (*Connecticut,*) 3d. ditto.

Captains.

1, Robert Kirkwood, *Delaware*; 2, Thomas Hunt, *Maſſachuſetts*; 3, John Mills, *ditto*; 4, John Pray, *ditto*; 5. Richard Brooke Roberts, *South-Carolina*; 6, John H. Buell, *Connecticut*; 7, David Sayles, *Rhode-Iſland*; 8, Jonathan Caſs, *New-Hampſhire*; 9, Conſtant Freeman, *Maſſachuſetts*; 10, Patrick Phelon, *ditto*; 11, Thomas H. Cuſhing, *ditto*; 12, Joſeph Shaylor, *Connecticut*.

Lieutenants.

1, Samuel Newman, *Maſſachuſetts*; 2, Bezalael Howe, *New-Hampſhire*; 3, Henry Sherman, jun. *Rhode-Iſland*; 4, Daniel Bradley, *Connecticut*; 5, John Platt, *Delaware*; 6, William Rickard, *Maſſachuſetts*; 7, Richard S. Howe, *ditto*; 8, Richard H. Greaton, *ditto*; 9, John Higgenſon, *ditto*; 10, Winſlow Warren, *ditto*; 11, Ruſſel Biſſell, *Connecticut*; 12, Francis Huger, *South-Carolina*.

Enſigns.

1, Martin B. Sohier, *Maſſachuſetts*; 2, Richard Edwards, *ditto*; 3, Edward Miller, *Connecticut*; 4, John Thomſon, *ditto*; 5. George Tillinghaſt, *Rhode-Iſland*; 6, Joſeph S. Gilman, *New-Hampſhire*; 7. Joſeph Pierce, *ditto*; 8, David Cobb jun. *Maſſachuſetts*; 9, Joſeph Dickinſon, *South-Carolina*; 10 Thomas Duff, *Delaware*; 11, Edward Turner, *Maſſachuſetts*; 12, Theodore Sedgwick, *ditto*.

Surgeon, William Euſtis, *Maſſachuſetts*——*Surgeons-mates*, Joſhua Summer, *Connecticut*, and John F. Carmichael, *New-Jerſey*.

BATALION *of* ARTILLERY.

William Ferguſon, Major Commandant, vice Doughty, promoted; Mahlon Ford, Captain vice Ferguſon, promoted; Daniel Mc. Lane, Lieutenant, vice Moore, dead; Abimael Y. Nicholl, ditto. vice Fowle, dead; George Ingerſoll, ditto, vice Ford, promoted.

MARRIAGES.

NEW-YORK. In the *Capital*, Dr. Lions, of *Elizabethtown*, to Miſs Sally Crane; the Rev. Mr. Cooper, to Miſs Schuyler.

NEW-JERSEY. Francis Bullus, Eſq. attorney at law, of *Mount-Holly*, to Miſs Eliza Minick, of *Burlington*; At *Newark*, Mr. A. Hammond, of *New-York*, to Miſs Ogden; At *Burlington*, Mr. William Cummings, of *Philad.* to Miſs Sarah Wardell; Thomas Little, Eſq. to Miſs Lydia Drummond; Mr. John Holme to Miſs Sarah Hendrickſon; At *Elizabethtown*, William Livingſton, Eſq. to Miſs Mary Lenington; Dr. Paul Micheau, to Miſs Maria Vergereau; At *Trenton*, Mr. Pearſon Hunt, of *Philad.* to Miſs Rachel Higbee.

PENNSYLVANIA. In *Philadelphia*, Mr. Andrew Douglaſs, to Miſs Rachel Morgan; Mr. Joſeph F. Miller, to Miſs Elizabeth Wheelen; Mr. Mathew Carey, to Miſs Biddy Flahavan; Mr. John Travis, to Miſs Elizabeth Bond; Mr. William W. Woodward, to Miſs Suſanna January; Mr. John Cameron, to Miſs Dalinda Hany. At *Cheſter*, Dr. Nicholas Newlin, to Miſs Sally Smith. At *Pittſburg*, Mr. David Evans, to Miſs Betſey Carſon; In *Bucks-county*, Mr. Joſiah Twamley, of *Philad.* to Miſs Hockley; In *Montgomery county*, Daniel St. Clair Eſq. Attorney at Law, to Miſs Shannon; At *Bedford*, James Roſs, Eſq. of *Waſhington*, to Miſs Nancy Woods.

DELAWARE. At *New-Caſtle*, Mr. James Miller, of *Philad.* to Miſs Ann Finney.

MARYLAND. In *Baltimore*, Dr. George Stevenſon, to Miſs Hetty Smith; Mr. Henry Wiley, to Mrs. Goodrich; Mr. William Branſon, to Miſs Peggy Smith; At *Eaſton*, Mr. John Singleton, to Miſs Anna Goldſborough, of *Talbot connty*; In *Baltimore county*, Mr. John Ridgely, to Miſs Emmit; Mr. John Mockbie, to Miſs Nancy Howard.

VIRGINIA. At *Fredericktown*, Mr. Michael Ramyet, aged 76, to Mrs. Chriſtiana Fultz, aged 60!

SOUTH-CAROLINA. At *Charleſton*, Mr. William Perouneau, to Miſs Mary Lightwood; Mr. William Payn, to Miſs Maria Torrans; Mr. William Price, to Mrs. Chiffelle; At *Chatſworth* on Aſhley river, William Marſhall, Eſq. Barriſter at law, to Miſs Charlotte Neyle.

DEATHS.

NEW-HAMPSHIRE. At *Hanover*, Mr. Jacob Green, aged 100.

NEW-YORK. In the *Capital*, Mr. Iſaac Pinto aged 70; Mr. Jacobus Bleecker; Miſs Elizabeth Benſon; Robert G. Livingſton, Eſq.;——At *Albany*, Colonel Lanſing.

NEW-JERSEY. At *Burlington*, John Philips Eſq.—At *Eveſham*, Mr. Jacob Evans; At *Perth-Amboy*, Mr. Michael Kearny; At *Elizabeth-town*, Mrs. Suſanna Herriman. At *New-Brunſwick*, Mrs. F. Randolph, aged 71.

PENNSYLVANIA. In *Philadelphia*, Mrs. D. Nicklin, conſort of Mr. Philip Nicklin; Dr. Richard Tidmarſh, aged 63; Mrs. Eſther White, relict of Thomas White, Eſq. aged 71; Mrs Hannah Harris, conſort of Dr Robert Harris; Mrs. Rebecca Morris, conſort of Mr. Samuel Morris; Mr. Joſeph Mifflin; Mrs. Hannah Wharton, relict of the late Joſeph Wharton ſen. Eſq. aged 70; The honourable George Bryan, Eſq. one of the judges of the ſupreme court of Pennſylvania; Mrs. Boys, conſort of Elias Boys Eſq; Mr. Richard P. Hicks, ſtudent of law; Mrs Rebecca Jarvis, aged 79; Mr. John Head, jun; Dr. James Newall of Allen-Town, New-Jerſey, aged 67; Mr. John Hall, aged 74; Captain John Willett. At *Shippenſburgh*, Mr. Daniel Duncan and his wife, within a very few days of each other; At *Chambersburgh*, Franklin county, Jeremiah Talbot Eſq; At *Milgrove*, Montgomery county, Mrs. Suſanna Prevoſt, conſort of Major Auguſtine Prevoſt; In *Eaſt-Pennſborough*, Mrs. Hoge, conſort of Jonathan Hoge Eſq.

DELAWARE. In conſequence of a fall, in his mill, Mr. Joſeph England; At *Wilmington*, Mr. John Wood; At *Dover*, John Banning Eſq.

MARYLAND. At *Baltimore*, Mrs. Heſter Wynkoop, conſort of Dr. James Wynkoop.

VIRGINIA. At *Winchester*, Mrs Ann Holliday, conſort of Mr. James Holliday; Mrs. Elizabeth M'Gill. conſort of colonel C. M'Gill.

SOUTH-CAROLINA. At *Charleſton*, Mr. William Cam; Mrs. Hannah Cæſar, aged 99; Mr. Joſeph Creighton.

GEORGIA. Lymon Hall Eſq; formerly governor of that State, aged 66.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of FEBRUARY, 1796.

Days.	Barom. Eng. foot. In.	Thermometer of Farenh. Reaum. D.		Anemometer Prevail. Wind	rain	thunder	storm	WEATHER.
1	30 6 1	21 9	4 5 0	NNW				Cloudy
	30 4 11	31 3	0 3 0	W				Idem
2	30 3 13	26 6	2 4 0	WNW				Fair
	30 4 12	35 6	1 6	NW				Cloudy
3	30 8 14	16 2	7 0 0	NW				Idem
	30 7 8	31 5	0 2 0	SE			1	Fair, snow in the night
4	30 3 11	34 0	0 9	SW				Cloudy
	30 2 11	42 1	4 5	WSW				Idem
5	30 4 15	34 2	1 0	NE	1			Rain
	30 4 1	40 8	3 9	NE	1			Idem
6	30 4 3	36 0	1 8	SW				Cloudy, fog
	30 3 12	50 0	8 0	SW				Fair,
7	30 2 8	41 0	4 0	SW				Cloudy, fog
	30 1 5	54 0	9 8	WSW				Idem
8	29 9 3	55 2	10 3	NE	1			Rain
	29 9 7	47 1	6 7	NE	1			Idem
9	30 2 14	23 0	4 0 0	NE			1	Snow, hail
	30 3 2	27 9	1 8 0	NE				Cloudy
10	30 3 10	26 8	2 3 0	WNW				Idem
	30 3 6	32 4	0 2	WNW				Fair
11	30 5 8	23 0	4 0 0	WNW				Cloudy
	30 3 13	34 2	1 0	WSW				Fair
12	30 5 0	24 6	3 3 0	SW				Idem
	30 4 13	42 1	4 5	W				Idem
13	30 4 14	30 9	0 5 0	NE				Idem
	30 3 3	39 4	3 3	NE	1			Rain
14	29 9 2	34 2	1 0	SW				Cloudy
	29 7 3	53 8	9 7	WSW				Fair
15	30 2 11	29 1	5 3 0	NW				Idem
	30 0 10	32 7	0 3	SW				Idem
16	29 1 14	24 7	1 2	SW			1	Rain
	29 3 0	35 4	1 5	W				Fair
17	29 9 6	5 0	12 0 0	WNW				Idem
	29 10 7	15 1	7 5 0	WNW				Idem
18	30 3 12	12 9	8 5 0	SW				Idem
	30 3 13	32 0	0 0	W			1	Cloudy, snow
19	29 11 12	26 4	2 5 0	NE			1	Snow
	29 11 9	32 9	0 4	NE	1		1	Rain, fleet
20	30 0 11	26 8	2 3 0	NNE				Cloudy
	30 1 3	38 1	2 7	WSW				Idem
21	30 2 13	22 3	4 3 0	NNE				Idem
	30 2 10	26 8	2 3 0	NE			1	Snow
22	30 4 0	15 1	7 5 0	NW				Fair
	30 3 6	33 6	0 7	W				Idem
23	29 11 10	30 0	0 9 0	W				Cloudy
	29 11 2	53 8	9 7	W				Fair
24	30 4 3	20 1	5 3 0	WNW				Idem
	30 3 0	34 9	1 3	W				Idem
25	30 3 4	22 1	4 4 0	NNE				Cloudy
	30 0 4	38 1	2 7	SSW				Idem
26	29 10 15	38 1	2 7	W				Idem
	29 10 15	39 0	3 1	W				Fair
27	30 3 10	24 6	3 3 0	W				Idem
	30 3 2	50 4	8 2	WSW				Idem
28	29 7 5	55 6	10 5	WSW	1			Rain
	29 7 0	53 8	9 7	SW	1			Idem

RESULT.	3d gr. ele.	20th gr. de. of heat
	30 8 15	55 6 10 5
	16th least el.	17th least de. of heat
	29 1 14	5 0 12 0 0
	Variation	Variation
	1 7 0	50 6 22 5
	Mean eleva.	Temperature
	1 30 7 11	33 2 0 6

Anemometer Prevail. Wind	rain	thunder	storm	WEATHER.
W. NE	9		6	Cloudy
	1		1	

THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR APRIL 1791.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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PHILADELPHIA:

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To CORRESPONDENTS.

THIS number contains *sixteen pages* more than usual, as did also the Asylum for March. In the present number we have given a very lengthy *Chronicle*, which, besides the *continuation* of our *congressional history*, the *conclusion* of the *report respecting a mint*, the intelligence of the month, &c. contains the *whole* of the *excise-bill*.

Our limits will not permit us to take notice, in this place, of the numerous favours transmitted by our fair correspondent, in Montgomery county. But, that she may not have cause to charge us with a want of due attention, we shall shortly write her a letter, on the subject of the sundry pieces which we have not yet inserted.—The extracts respecting the death of Mr. D——are unavoidably postponed—They shall certainly appear in our next.

The sonnets, transmitted by J. M. are published in this month's *Parnassiad*. The other communications, mentioned by our correspondent, would be acceptable.

A desire to gratify our readers with some interesting extracts, from *Mr. Paine's* celebrated answer to *Mr. Burke*, has occasioned our deferring, till next month, the continuation of Dr. Franklin's life, together with some other original performances, which we had intended for our present number.

Strephon's love-sick strains ought to be communicated to his *Dulcinea*, by letter. They are by no means interesting, nor would they even afford entertainment, to our readers.

Amelia's ditty is liable to the same objection. Were we to publish all the *amorous* and *elegiac* verses, with which we are incessantly pestered, our Asylum would scarcely contain any thing else ; and might, in that case, with great propriety, be entitled, *The calendar of love and death*.

The poem signed Z is not *original*. Our correspondents, who transmit *selected* articles, are requested not to give them the *appearance* of *originality*.

The smiles of complacency, a new song ; *Hope*, a poem ; and a number of other *original* performances, both in prose and verse, shall have a place next month.

THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR APRIL, 1791.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SIR,

THE enclosed essay was read before a respectable meeting of the American Philosophical Society, on the 18th. of February last. The subject of it being wholly metaphysical, it was conceived to be foreign to those branches of science, which have hitherto engaged the attention of the Society. It was, therefore, withdrawn by the author. As the opinions are new, and are supported by a number of ingenious and forcible arguments, it cannot fail to be interesting to all who wish to investigate, with accuracy, the philosophy of the human mind.

I have obtained the author's consent to communicate it to the publick, through the medium of your useful magazine. By giving it a place next month, you will oblige A CONSTANT READER.

Philadelphia. 15th. April 1791.

THOUGHTS *on* COMMON SENSE.

By BENJAMIN RUSH, *M.D. Professor of medicine in the College of Philadelphia.*

THE human mind, in common with other branches of philosophy, has become the subject of attention in the present age of free and general enquiry While new faculties are discovering in it, it will conduce equally to our acquiring a perfect knowledge of its powers, to detect and remove such *supposed* faculties as do not belong to it.

I have long suspected the term *Common Sense* to be applied improperly to designate a faculty of the mind. I shall not repeat the accounts which have been given of it by Cicero—Buffier—Berkely—Shaftesbury—Bentely—Fenelon—Locke—Hume—Hobbs—Priestly and others, all of whom agree in describing it as a *faculty*, or *part* of a faculty, possessing a quick and universal perception of *right* and *wrong*, *truth* and *error*, and of *propriety* and *impropriety* in human affairs.

I shall copy, as the substance of all that those authors have said upon this subject, Dr. Reid's account of common sense, published in the 2d. chapter of the sixth number of his Essays on the intellectual powers of man.—" It is absurd to conceive (says the Doctor) that there can be any opposition between reason and common sense. It is the first-

born of reaſon, and, as they are commonly joined together in ſpeech and writing, they are inſeparable in their nature."

"We aſcribe to reaſon two offices or two degrees. The firſt is to judge of things ſelf-evident; the ſecond is to draw concluſions that are not ſelf-evident, from things that are. The firſt of theſe is the province, and the ſole province, of common ſenſe, and therefore it *coincides* with reaſon in its *whole* extent, and is only *another* name for one *branch* or one *degree* of reaſon."

"There is an obvious reaſon why this degree of reaſon ſhould have a name appropriated to it, and that is, that in the greateſt part of mankind no other degree of reaſon is to be found. It is this degree of reaſon that entitles them to the denomination of reaſonable creatures."

"Theſe two degrees of reaſon differ in other reſpects, which would be ſufficient to entitle them to diſtinct names. The firſt is the gift of heaven—the ſecond is learned by practice and rules, when the firſt is not wanting."——Thus far Dr. Reid.

It is with great diffidence that I object to any thing that comes from a gentleman from whoſe writings I have derived ſo much entertainment and inſtruction, and who has done ſo much towards removing the rubbiſh that has for many ages obſcured the ſcience of metaphyſicks. This diffidence to offer a ſingle objection to Dr. Reid's opinion upon the ſubject under conſideration, is encreaſed by the groupe of popular and reſpectable names under which he has ſuppported it.

The idea which I have adopted of common ſenſe is plain and ſimple. I conſider it as the perception of things as they appear to the *greateſt* part of mankind. It has no relation to their being *true* or *falſe*, *right* or *wrong*, *proper* or *improper*. For the ſake of perſpicuity, I ſhall define it to be, *Opinions and feelings in uniſon with the opinions and feelings of the bulk of mankind.*

From this definition it is evident that common ſenſe muſt neceſſarily differ in different ages and countries, and, in both, muſt vary with the progreſs of taſte, ſcience, and religion. In the uncultivated ſtate of reaſon, the opinions and feelings of a majority of mankind will be *wrong*, and, of courſe, their common or univerſal ſenſe will partake of their errors. In the cultivated ſtate of reaſon, *juſt* opinions and feelings will become general, and the common ſenſe of the majority will be in uniſon with truth. I beg leave to illuſtrate what I mean by a few examples.

1. There are many things which were contrary to common ſenſe in former ages, both in philoſophy and religion, which are now univerſally believed, inſomuch that to call them in queſtion is to diſcover a want of judgment, or a defective education.

2 It is contrary to common ſenſe to ſpeak or write in favour of republicaniſm, in ſeveral European countries; and it is equally contrary to it to ſpeak or write in favour of monarchy, in the United States of America.

3 The common ſenſe of the planters in Jamaica, is in favour of the commerce and ſlavery of the Africans.—In Pennſylvania, reaſon, humanity, and common ſenſe, have univerſally declared againſt them.

4 In Turkey, it is contrary to the common ſenſe of delicacy which prevails in that country for a gentleman to dance with a lady.

No ſuch common ſenſe prevails in any of the weſtern countries of Europe, or in the States of America.

5 It is contrary to the common ſenſe of many numerous ſects to believe that it is poſſible for men to go to heaven, who do not embrace their principles, or mode of worſhip.—Among rational men, this common ſenſe is contrary to truth and the chriſtian religion.

6 The common ſenſe of mankind has generally been in favour of eſtabliſhed modes and habits of practice, in medicine. Opium, bark, and mercury, have all forced their way into general uſe, contrary to this common ſenſe. Their utility is a proof how little common ſenſe accords with the deciſions of reaſon, and how improperly it is ſuppoſed to be a part of that noble power of the mind.

7. It is agreeable to the common ſenſe of a great part of mankind, to revenge public and private injuries by wars and duels, and yet no wiſe or juſt reaſon has ever been given to juſtify the practice of either of them.

8. The common ſenſe of the bulk of the inhabitants of the Britiſh dominions, and of the united ſtates, is in favour of boys ſpending four or five years in learning the Latin and Greek languages, in order to qualify them to underſtand the Engliſh language. Thoſe perſons who recollect that the moſt perfect language in the world, viz: the Greek, was learned without the medium or aid of a dead or foreign language, conſider the above practice, (founded in common ſenſe) as contrary to right reaſon, and as unneceſſary, as it is to oblige children to chew pebbles, to prepare their gums, or teeth, to maſticate animal food.—But further, under this head. The common ſenſe of the ſame immenſe proportion of people, is in favour of teaching boys *words*, before they are taught *ideas*. Now nature and right reaſon both revolt at this abſurd practice.

9. The common ſenſe of nearly all nations, is in favour of preventing crimes, by the puniſhment of death, but right reaſon, policy, and the experience of a wiſe and enlightened prince,* all concur in proving that the beſt means of preventing crimes, is by *living* and not by *dead* examples.

In the perfection of knowledge, common ſenſe and truth will be in uniſon with each other. It is *now*, *more* related to error than truth, and in the ſenſe in which I have deſcribed it, it implies more praiſe than cenſure to want it.

To ſay that a man has common ſenſe, is to ſay that he thinks with his age or country, in their *falſe*, as well as their *true* opinions; and the greater the proportion of people he acts and thinks with, the greater ſhare he poſſeſſes of this common ſenſe.—After all that has been ſaid in its favour, I cannot help thinking that it is the characteriſtic only of common minds.

To think and act with the majority of mankind, when they are *right*, and differently from them, when they are *wrong*, conſtitutes, in my opinion, the perfection of human wiſdom and conduct.

The *feelings* and *opinions* of mankind are often confounded; but they are widely different from each other. There may be *juſt* feelings connected with *erroneous* opinions and conduct. This is often the caſe

* The preſent Emperor of Germany.

in religion and government—But, in general, opinions and feelings are juſt and unjuſt in equal degrees, according to the circumſtances of age, country, and the progreſs of knowledge before mentioned.

Had this common ſenſe depended upon the information of any one of the *five external* ſenſes, I ſhould have had no difficulty in admitting Dr. Reid's account of it, inaſmuch as the perceptions they afford are the *ſame*, in their nature, in all healthy men, and in all ages and countries. But to ſuppoſe it to be an inferior degree, or the *firſt* act of reaſon, and afterwards to ſuppoſe it to be *univerſal*, is to contradict every thing that hiſtory and obſervation teach us of human nature.*

In matters addreſſed to our reaſon, the principal buſineſs of reaſon is to correct the evidence of our *ſenſes*. Indeed, the perception of truth, in philoſophy, ſeems to conſiſt in little elſe than in the refutation of the ideas acquired from the teſtimony of our ſenſes. In the progreſs of knowledge, when the exact connection between the ſenſes and reaſon is perfectly underſtood, it is probable that the ſenſes and reaſon will be in uniſon with each other, and that mankind will as ſuddenly connect the evidence of all the ſenſes with the deciſions of reaſon, as they now connect, with certainty, the diſtance of objects with the evidence of the eyes. This general uniſon between the ſenſes and reaſon, as in the caſe of viſion, muſt be the reſult of experience and habit only.

It is the misfortune of the metaphyſical ſcience, to have received its terms in ages of ignorance. Hence the many difficulties and diſputes which have ariſen among metaphyſicians about words. I ſuppoſe the terms *common ſenſe*, *moral ſenſe*, and *good ſenſe* have all been derived from a ſuppoſed reſemblance between the external ſenſes and the internal faculties of the mind. I ſubmit it, therefore, to the conſideration of philoſophers, whether it would not be more proper, inſtead of the terms above mentioned, to uſe thoſe of *common*, *moral*, and *juſt perception*, when we wiſh to convey the ideas that are uſually connected with thoſe general expreſſions.

I cannot diſmiſs this ſubject, without adding the following remark. Mankind are governed, ſays Mr. Bayle, by their prejudices, and not by their principles. To do them good, we muſt, in ſome meaſure, conform to thoſe prejudices ;—hence we find the moſt acceptable men in practical ſociety, have been thoſe who have never ſhocked their cotemporaries, by oppoſing popular or common opinions. Men of oppoſite characters, like objects placed too near the eye, are ſeldom ſeen diſtinctly by the age in which they live. They muſt content themſelves with the proſpects of being uſeful to the diſtant and more enlightened generations which are to follow them. Galileo, who aſked pardon of the pope, on his knees, for contradicting the *common ſenſe* of the church, reſpecting the revolution of the earth, and Dr. Harvey, who loſt all his buſineſs, by refuting the *common ſenſe* of former ages, reſpecting the circulation of the blood, now enjoy a reputation for their opinions and diſcoveries, which has, in no inſtance ever been given to the cold blood of common ſenſe.

* The king of Pruſſia, in his poſthumous works, ſays, "Reaſon never did any thing great," by which he muſt have meant the *common* degrees of it, or what is called, by Dr. Reid, *common ſenſe*.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

OBSERVATIONS *on the Revolution in* FRANCE, *and the genius of the French nation; deſcription of* PARIS; *and a comparative view of the ſtate of the uſeful and ornamental arts in* LONDON *and* PARIS. *In a letter to a lady in* PENNSYLVANIA, *from a young American gentleman, reſiding in* LONDON, *who had juſt returned from a tour in* FRANCE *and* ITALY.

London, July, 7th 1790.

DEAR MADAM,

DURING my reſidence in France, I had an opportunity of witneſſing the regeneration of a great empire. An awful and edifying ſpectacle indeed! and in the hiſtory of mankind unexampled in the nature and efficacy of its means. Twenty-four millions of men riſing, with one accord, to trample on regal, ariſtocratic and eccleſiaſtical tyranny, under which they had been cruſhed for fifteen ages! I can compare the preſent ſtate of the French nobility, only to the fallen ſpirits in *Milton*.

"So abject and loſt lay theſe,
Under amazement of their hideous change"

However, I hope the people of France will follow the example of the Americans yet further, and reform the conſtitution made on the ſpur of the occaſion, which is certainly at preſent too purely democratic.

Having loſt my native country, without acquiring another in return, with a mind freed from prejudice by adverſity, I thought myſelf qualified to aſſume the philoſophical character of a citizen of the world, and was inclined to deride all national remarks, which occur in books, travels, letters, &c. &c. as the errors of little minds, which for want of deep obſervation, miſtook accidental diverſity of character, for eſſential difference. But, on more attentive obſervation, I was obliged to confeſs, that moſt of their remarks were well founded; and to add others of my own, which I was ſurprized to find had eſcaped the notice of the intelligent traveller.

Paris and *London* ſtrike me, as being no leſs diſſimilar in their external appearance, than in the deportment of their reſpective inhabitants. *Paris* abounds with more noble edifices; many in ſuch a chaſte correct taſte, as would have done honour to the city of *Minerva*, in the pureſt ages of the arts. Its public libraries and cabinets are ſplendid beyond compariſon. Its charitable inſtitutions are upon a grand ſcale; but appear to me to have a tendency to increaſe the evils they were formed to alleviate.

Its quays have an aſpect noble and pleaſing, without being polluted with a caſk or bale,* (for the city you know has no maritime

Note by the perſon to whom this letter was addreſſed.

* Such unfurniſhed wharfs as Exilius deſcribes in *Paris* appear as much out of ſtyle as Mr. Pope's miſer,

"What though (the uſe of barb'rous ſpits forgot,)
"His kitchen vied in coolneſs with his grot." 3*d Epiſtle.*

commerce) while its ſtreets are narrow and ill paved, with the gutters in the middle, and no walk for foot paſſengers as in *London*. Add to this, there is a dunghill beſide every door, which is an accumulation of filth thrown out of the windows in the night, and removed only once a week.

The furniture of their houſes is correſpondent in a like degree of contradiction. Damaſk curtains and chairs, in moſt ſplendid apartments, without a carpet or table of better materials than oak or deal.

Although they excel us in the fine arts, they are lamentably deficient in all thoſe which miniſter to the comfort and conveniency of life. They are a people ſo ſatisfied with ſplendor, as to have but faint perceptions of comfort; this is obvious, from their having no correſpondent term in their language to that ſenſation.

In all manufactures which have uſefulneſs for their object, their ſpecimens, put beſide Engliſh work, appear like rude eſſays of barbarians.

They excel us however in ſome of the mechanic arts; and theſe have a tendency to mark the different geniuſes of the two nations; the manufactures in which they have no competitors are, paper-hangings, tapeſtry, plate glaſs, embroidery, and the richeſt ſilks; nor does it require ſagacity to diſcover an analogy between the arts and genius, habits and manners of thinking, of the people. Much of all this is to be aſcribed to the influence of the faſtidious ſpirit of ariſtocracy, but not all ſurely, or they would not differ from their neighbours, who are under the ſame vicious and oppreſſive regimen.

Now that the ariſtocracy is aboliſhed, and the exertion of every individual may be directed to the public good, we ſhall ſee whether or not they be capable of that degree of induſtry or application, which have produced ſuch wonderful effects amongſt their neighbours.

I had almoſt forgot to tell you, that, when I was at Verſailles, I ſaw the queen and royal family. The queen was a fine woman; but with a countenance ſo clouded with diſappointed pride, and ambition humbled, that I thought *Milton* himſelf muſt have had ſome ſuch idea for the prototype of Satan, before he had loſt all his original brightneſs.

——————————" nor appear'd
Leſs than arch-angel ruin'd!"——————

P. S. I was much gratified by having an opportunity of inſpecting the remains of Roman greatneſs, which ſtill exiſt in Tours, Vienna, Orange, Carpentras, Niſmes, &c. ſome of which are built without cement; and are as perfect at this day as when firſt erected.

I cannot help thinking it a little peculiar, that neatneſs and cleanlineſs ſhould form ſo diſtinguiſhing a part of the Engliſh character, and the reverſe in *France*, when the beams of Phœbus are ſo bright as to make diſcoveries in the latter, not always to their advantage, while the clouds in the *Britiſh* atmoſphere might favour any propenſity to concealment, of which they do not ſeek to avail themſelves in this way. As this is a packet letter, and compriſed in a ſingle ſheet, you will, dear madam, excuſe any omiſſions of

Your ever affectionate
EXILIUS.

INTERESTING *extracts from* MR. PAINE'S *celebrated* ANSWER *to* MR. BURKE'S ATTACK *on the* FRENCH REVOLUTION.

STRICTURES on Mr. Burke's political doctrine, "That the Parliament of Great Britain, at the Revolution in 1688, *renounced, for themſelves and their poſterity, for ever, the right of changing the hereditary ſucceſſion of their kings, or the form of their government, as then eſtabliſhed."*

THERE never did, there never will, and there never can exiſt a parliament, or any deſcription of men, or any generation of men, in any country, poſſeſſed of the right or the power of binding and controlling poſterity to the "*end of time*," or of commanding for ever how the world ſhall be governed, or who ſhall govern it: and therefore all ſuch clauſes, acts or declarations, by which the makers of them attempt to do what they have neither the right nor the power to do, nor the power to execute, are in themſelves null and void. ——Every age and generation muſt be as free to act for itſelf, *in all caſes*, as the ages and generations which preceded it. The vanity and preſumption of governing beyond the grave, is the moſt ridiculous and inſolent of all tyrannies. Man has no property in man; neither has any generation a property in the generations which are to follow. The parliament or people of 1688, or of any other period, had no more right to diſpoſe of the people of the preſent day, or to bind or to control them in any ſhape whatever, than the parliament or the people of the preſent day have to diſpoſe of, bind or control thoſe who are to live a hundred or a thouſand years hence. Every generation is and muſt be competent to all the purpoſes which its occaſions require. It is the living, and not the dead, that are to be accommodated. When man ceaſes to be, his power and his wants ceaſe with him; and having no longer any participation in the concerns of this world, he has no longer any authority in directing who ſhall be its governors, or how its government ſhall be organized, or how adminiſtered.

I am not contending for, nor againſt, any form of government, nor for, nor againſt, any party here or elſewhere. That which a whole nation chooſes to do, it has a right to do. Mr. Burke ſays, No. Where then does the right exiſt? I am contending for the right of the *living*, and againſt their being willed away, and controlled and contracted for, by the manuſcript aſſumed authority of the dead; and Mr. Burke is contending for the authority of the dead over the rights and freedom of the living. There was a time when kings diſpoſed of their crowns by will upon their death-beds, and conſigned the people, like beaſts of the field, to whatever ſucceſſor they appointed. This is now ſo exploded as ſcarcely to be remembered, and ſo monſtrous as hardly to be believed: But the parliamentary clauſes upon which Mr. Burke builds his political church, are of the ſame nature.

The laws of every country muſt be analogous to ſome common principle. In England, no parent or maſter, nor all the authority of par-

liament, omnipotent as it has called itſelf, can bind or control the perſonal freedom even of an individual, beyond the age of twenty-one years: On what ground of right then could the parliament of 1688, or any other parliament, bind all poſterity for ever?

From what, or from whence, does Mr. Burke prove the right of any human power to bind poſterity for ever? He has produced his clauſes; but he muſt produce alſo his proofs, that ſuch a right exiſted, and ſhew how it exiſted. If it ever exiſted, it muſt now exiſt; for whatever appertains to the nature of man, cannot be annihilated by man. It is the nature of man to die, and he will continue to die as long as he continues to be born. But Mr. Burke has ſet up a ſort of political Adam, in whom all poſterity are bound for ever; he muſt therefore prove that his Adam poſſeſſes ſuch a power, or ſuch a right.

It requires but a very ſmall glance of thought to perceive, that although laws made in one generation often continue in force through ſucceeding generations, yet that they continue to derive their force from the conſent of the living. A law not repealed continues in force, not becauſe it cannot be repealed, but becauſe it is not repealed; and the non-repealing paſſes for conſent.

But Mr. Burke's clauſes have not even this qualification in their favour. They become null, by attempting to become immortal. The nature of them precludes conſent. They deſtroy the right which they might have, by grounding it on a right which they cannot have. Immortal power is not a human right, and therefore cannot be a right of parliament. The parliament of 1688 might as well have paſſed an act to have authoriſed themſelves to live for ever, as to make their authority live for ever.

On Religious Toleration.

The French conſtitution hath aboliſhed or renounced Toleration, and Intoleration alſo, and hath eſtabliſhed *Univerſal right of conſcience.*

Toleration is not the oppoſite of intoleration, but is the counterfeit of it. Both are deſpotiſms. The one aſſumes to itſelf the right of with-holding liberty of conſcience, and the other of granting it. The one is the pope, armed with fire and faggot, and the other is the pope, ſelling or granting indulgencies. The former is church and ſtate, and the latter is church and traffic.

But toleration muſt be viewed in a much ſtronger light. Man worſhips not himſelf, but his Maker; and the liberty of conſcience which he claims, is not for the ſervice of himſelf, but of his God. In this caſe, therefore, we muſt neceſſarily have the aſſociated idea of two beings; the *mortal* who renders the worſhip, and the IMMORTAL BEING who is worſhipped. Toleration, therefore, places itſelf, not between man and man, nor between church and church, nor between one denomination of religion and another, but between God and man; between the being who worſhips, and the *Being* who is worſhipped; and by the ſame act of aſſumed authority by which it tolerates man to pay his worſhip, it preſumptuouſly and blaſphemouſly ſets itſelf up to tolerate the Almighty to receive it.

Were a bill brought into any parliament, entitled, "An *Act* to to-

lerate or grant liberty to the Almighty to receive the worſhip of a Jew or a Turk," or "to prohibit the Almighty from receiving it," all men would ſtartle and call it blaſphemy. There would be an uproar. The preſumption of toleration in religious matters would then preſent itſelf unmaſked: but the preſumption is not the leſs becauſe the name of 'man' only appears to thoſe laws, for the aſſociated idea of the *worſhipper* and the *worſhipped* cannot be ſeparated.—Who, then, art thou, vain duſt and aſhes! by whatever name thou art called, whether a king, a biſhop, a church or a ſtate, a parliament, or any thing elſe, that obtrudeſt thine inſignificance between the ſoul of man and its Maker? Mind thine own concerns. If he believes not as thou believeſt, it is a proof that thou believeſt not as he believeth, and there is no earthly power can determine between you.

With reſpect to what are called denominations of religion, if every one is left to judge of his own religion, there is no ſuch thing as a religion that is wrong; but if they are to judge of each others religion, there is no ſuch thing as a religion that is right; and therefore, all the world are right, or all the world are wrong. But with reſpect to religion itſelf, without regard to names, and as directing itſelf from the univerſal family of mankind to the divine object of all adoration, *it is man bringing to his Maker the fruits of his heart*; and though thoſe fruits may differ from each other, like the fruits of the earth, the grateful tribute of every one is accepted.

On the Connection of a Church Eſtabliſhment with the Civil Power.

One of the continual choruſes of Mr. Burke's book is, "Church and ſtate:" he does not mean ſome one particular church, or ſome one particular ſtate, but any church and ſtate; and he uſes the term as a general figure, to hold forth the political doctrine of always uniting the church with the ſtate in every country, and he cenſures the National Aſſembly for not having done this in France.—Let us beſtow a few thoughts on this ſubject.

All religions are in their nature mild and benign, and united with principles of morality. They could not have made proſelytes at firſt, by profeſſing any thing that was vicious, cruel, perſecuting, or immoral. Like every thing elſe, they had their beginning; and they proceeded by perſuaſion, exhortation, and example. How then is it that they loſe their native mildneſs, and become moroſe and intolerant?

It proceeds from the connection which Mr. Burke reccommends. By engendering the church with the ſtate, a ſort of mule animal, capable only of deſtroying, and not of breeding up, is produced, called, *The church eſtabliſhed by law.* It is a ſtranger, even from its birth, to any parent mother on which it is begotten, and whom in time it kicks out and deſtroys.

The inquiſition in Spain does not proceed from the religion originally profeſſed, but from this mule-animal, engendered between the church and the ſtate. The burnings in Smithfield proceeded from the ſame heterogeneous production; and it was the regeneration of this ſtrange animal in England afterwards, that renewed rancour and

irreligion among the inhabitants, and that drove the people called Quakers and Diſſenters to America. Perſecution is not an original feature in *any* religion; but it is always the ſtrongly-marked feature of all law-religions or religions eſtabliſhed by law. Take away the law-eſtabliſhment, and every religion re-aſſumes its original benignity. In America, a catholic prieſt is a good citizen, a good character, and a good neighbour; an epiſcopalian miniſter is of the ſame deſcription: and this proceeds, independent of the men, from there being no law eſtabliſhment in America.

If alſo we view this matter in a temporal ſenſe, we ſhall ſee the ill effects it has had on the proſperity of nations. The union of church and ſtate has impoveriſhed Spain. The revoking the edict of Nantz drove the ſilk manufacture from that country into England; and church and ſtate are now driving the cotton manufacture from England to America and France. Let then Mr. Burke continue to preach his anti-political doctrine of church and ſtate. It will do ſome good. The National Aſſembly will not follow his advice, but will benefit by his folly. It was by obſerving the ill effects of it in England, that America has been warned againſt it; and it is by experiencing them in France, that the National Aſſembly have aboliſhed it, and, like America, has eſtabliſhed *univerſal right of conſcience, and univerſal right of citizenſhip.*

Sundry cauſes which produced, in France, ſentiments favourable to liberty.

The only ſigns which appeared of the ſpirit of liberty during former periods, are to be found in the writings of the French philoſophers. Monteſquieu, preſident of the parliament of Bourdeaux, went as far as a writer under a deſpotic government could well proceed; and being obliged to divide himſelf between principle and prudence, his mind often appears under a veil, and we ought to give him credit for more than he has expreſſed.

Voltaire, who was both the flatterer and the ſatiriſt of deſpotiſm, took another line. His forte lay in expoſing and ridiculing the ſuperſtitions which prieſt-craft, united with ſtate-craft, had interwoven with governments. It was not from the purity of his principles, or his love of mankind (for ſatire and philanthropy are not naturally concordant,) but from his ſtrong capacity of ſeeing folly in its true ſhape, and his irreſiſtable propenſity to expoſe it, that he made thoſe attacks. They were however, as formidable as if the motives had been virtuous; and he merits the thanks rather than the eſteem of mankind.

On the contrary, we find in the writings of Rouſſeau, and the Abbe Raynal, a lovelineſs of ſentiment in favour of liberty, that excites reſpect, and elevates the human faculties; but having raiſed this animation, they do not direct its operations, and leave the mind in love with an object, without deſcribing the means of poſſeſſing it.

The writings of Quiſne, Turgot, and the friends of thoſe authors, are of the ſerious kind, but they laboured under the ſame diſadvantage with Monteſquieu: their writings abound with moral maxims of government, but are rather directed to economiſe and reform the adminiſtration of the government, than the government itſelf.

But all thoſe writings, and many others, had their weight; and by the different manner in which they treated the ſubject of govern-

ment, Monteſquieu, by his judgment and knowledge of laws, Voltaire by his wit, Rouſſeau and Raynal by their animation, and Quiſne and Turgot by their moral maxims and ſyſtems of economy, readers of every claſs met with ſomething to their taſte, and a ſpirit of political enquiry began to diffuſe itſelf through the nation, at the time the diſpute between England and the then colonies of America broke out.

In the war which France afterwards engaged in, it is very well known that the nation appeared to be before-hand with the French miniſtry. Each of them had its view: but thoſe views were directed to different objects; the one ſought liberty, and the other retaliation on England. The French officers and ſoldiers who after this went to America, were eventually placed in the ſchool of Freedom, and learned the practice, as well as the principles of it by heart.

As it was impoſſible to ſeparate the military events which took place in America, from the principles of the American revolution, the publication of thoſe events in France, neceſſarily connected themſelves with the principles that produced them. Many of the facts were in themſelves principles; ſuch as the declaration of American independence, and the treaty of alliance between France and America, which recogniſed the natural rights of man, and juſtified reſiſtance to oppreſſion.

The then Miniſter of France, *Count Vergennes, was not the friend of America;* and it is both juſtice and gratitude to ſay, that it was the Queen of France who gave the cauſe of America a faſhion at the French Court. Count Vergennes was the perſonal and ſocial friend of Dr. Franklin; and the Doctor had obtained, by his ſenſible gracefulneſs, a ſort of influence over him, but with reſpect to principles, Count Vergennes was a deſpot.

The ſituation of Dr. Franklin as miniſter from America to France, ſhould be taken into the chain of circumſtances; the diplomatic character is of itſelf the narroweſt ſphere of ſociety that man can act in. It forbids intercourſe by a reciprocity of ſuſpicion; and a diplomatic is a ſort of an unconnected atom, continually repelling and repelled. But this was not the caſe with Dr. Franklin. He was not the diplomatic of a Court, but of MAN. His character as a philoſopher had long been eſtabliſhed, and his circle of ſociety in France was univerſal.

Count Vergennes reſiſted for a conſiderable time the publication of the American conſtitutions in France, tranſlated into the French language; but even in this he was obliged to give way to public opinion, and a ſort of propriety in admitting to appear what he had undertaken to defend. The American conſtitutions were to liberty, what a grammar is to language: they define its parts of ſpeech, and practically conſtruct them into Syntax.

The peculiar ſituation of the then Marquis de la Fayette is another link in the great chain. He ſerved in America as an American officer under a commiſſion of Congreſs, and by the univerſality of his acquaintance, was in cloſe friendſhip with the civil government of America, as well as with the military line. He ſpoke the language of the country, entered into the diſcuſſions on the principles of government, and was always a welcome friend at any election.

When the war cloſed, a vaſt reinforcement to the cauſe of liberty

ſpread itſelf over France, by the return of the French officers and ſoldiers. A knowledge of the practice was then joined to the theory; and all that was wanting to give it real exiſtence, was opportunity.

On Hereditary Succeſſion.

In whatever light hereditary ſucceſſion, as growing out of the will and teſtament of ſome former generation, preſents itſelf, it is an abſurdity. A cannot make a will to take from B the property of B, and give it to C; yet this is the manner in which (what is called) hereditary ſucceſſion by law operates. A certain former generation made a will to take away the rights of the commencing generation and all future ones, and convey thoſe rights to a third perſon, who afterwards comes forward, and tells them in Mr. Burke's language, that they have *no rights*, that their rights are already bequeathed to him, and that he will govern "in contempt" of them. From ſuch principles, and ſuch ignorance, Good Lord deliver the world!

But, after all, what is this metaphor called a crown, or rather what is monarchy? Is it a thing, or is it a name, or is it a fraud? Is it "a contrivance of human wiſdom," or of human craft, to obtain money from a nation under ſpecious pretences? Is it a thing neceſſary to a nation? If it is, in what does that neceſſity conſiſt, what ſervices does it perform, what is its buſineſs, and what are its merits? Doth the virtue conſiſt in the metaphor, or in the man? Doth the goldſmith that makes the crown, make the virtue alſo? Doth it operate like Fortunatus's wiſhing cap, or Harlequin's wooden ſword? Doth it make a man a conjuror? In fine, what is it? It appears to be a ſomething going much out of faſhion, falling into ridicule, and rejected in ſome countries, both as unneceſſary and expenſive. In America it is conſidered as an abſurdity, and in France it has ſo far declined, that the goodneſs of the man, and the reſpect for his perſonal character, are the only things that preſerve the appearance of its exiſtence.

If Government be what Mr. Burke deſcribes it, "a contrivance of human wiſdom," I might aſk him, if wiſdom was at ſuch a low ebb in England, that it was become neceſſary to import it from Holland and from Hanover? But I will do the country the juſtice to ſay, that was not the caſe; and even if it was, it miſtook the cargo. The wiſdom of every country, when properly exerted, is ſufficient for all its purpoſes; and there could exiſt no more real occaſion in England to have ſent for a Dutch Stadtholder, or a German Elector, than there was in America to have done a ſimilar thing. If a country does not underſtand its own affairs, how is a foreigner to underſtand them, who knows neither its laws, its manners, nor its language? If there exiſted a man ſo tranſcendently wiſe above all others, that his wiſdom was neceſſary to inſtruct a nation, ſome reaſon might be offered for monarchy; but when we caſt our eyes about a country, and obſerve how every part underſtands its own affairs; and when we look around the world, and ſee that of all men in it, the race of kings are the moſt inſignificant in capacity, our reaſon cannot fail to aſk us—What are thoſe men kept for?

On the various forms of government, the downfall of hereditary power, and the progreſs of revolution-principles.

Reaſon and ignorance, the oppoſites of each other, influence the great bulk of mankind. If either of theſe can be rendered ſufficiently extenſive in a country, the machinery of government goes eaſily on. Reaſon obeys itſelf; and ignorance ſubmits to whatever is dictated to it.

The two modes of government which prevail in the world, are, *firſt*, government by election and repreſentation: *Secondly*, government by hereditary ſucceſſion. The former is generally known by the name of republic; the latter by that of monarchy and ariſtocracy.

Thoſe two diſtinct and oppoſite forms, erect themſelves on the two diſtinct and oppoſite baſes of reaſon and ignorance.—As the exerciſe of Government requires talents and abilities, and as talents and abilities cannot have hereditary deſcent, it is evident that hereditary ſucceſſion requires a belief from man, to which his reaſon cannot ſubſcribe, and which can only be eſtabliſhed upon his ignorance; and the more ignorant any country is, the better it is fitted for this ſpecies of government.

On the contrary, government in a well conſtituted republic, requires no belief from man beyond what his reaſon can give. He ſees the *rationale* of the whole ſyſtem, its origin and its operation; and as it is beſt ſupported when beſt underſtood, the human faculties act with boldneſs, and acquire, under this form of government, a gigantic manlineſs.

As, therefore, each of thoſe forms acts on a different baſe, the one moving freely by the aid of reaſon, the other by ignorance; we have next to conſider, what it is that gives motion to that ſpecies of government which is called mixed government, or, as it is ſometimes ludicrouſly ſtiled, a government of *this*, *that*, and *t'other*.

The moving power in this ſpecies of government, is, of neceſſity, corruption. However imperfect election and repreſentation may be in mixed governments, they ſtill give exerciſe to a greater portion of reaſon than is convenient to the hereditary part; and therefore it becomes neceſſary to buy the reaſon up. A mixed government is an imperfect every-thing, cementing and ſoldering the diſcordant parts together by corruption, to act as a whole. Mr. Burke appears highly diſguſted, that France, ſince ſhe had reſolved on a revolution, did not adopt what he calls "*A Britiſh Conſtitution;*" and the regretful manner in which he expreſſes himſelf on this occaſion, implies a ſuſpicion, that the Britiſh conſtitution needed ſomething to keep its defects in countenance.

In mixed governments there is no reſponſibility: the parts cover each other till reſponſibility is loſt; and the corruption which moves the machine, contrives at the ſame time its own eſcape. When it is laid down as a maxim, that *a king can do no wrong*, it places him in a ſtate of ſimilar ſecurity with that of ideots and perſons inſane, and reſponſibility is out of the queſtion with reſpect to himſelf. It then deſcends upon the miniſter, who ſhelters himſelf under a majority in parliament, which, by places, penſions, and corruption, he can al-

ways command; and that majority juſtifies itſelf by the ſame authority with which it protects the miniſter. In this rotatory motion, reſponſibility is thrown off from the parts, and from the whole.

When there is a part in government which can do no wrong, it implies that it does nothing; and is only the machine of another power, by whoſe advice and direction it acts. What is ſuppoſed to be the king in mixed governments, is the cabinet; and as the cabinet is always a part of the parliament, and the members juſtifying in one character what they adviſe and act in another, a mixed government becomes a continual enigma; entailing upon a country, by the quantity of corruption neceſſary to ſolder the parts, the expence of ſupporting all the forms of government at once, and finally reſolving itſelf into a government by committee; in which the adviſers, the actors, the approvers, the juſtifiers, the perſons reſponſible, and the perſons not reſponſible, are the ſame perſons.

When men are ſpoken of as kings and ſubjects, or when government is mentioned under the diſtinct or combined heads of monarchy, ariſtocracy, and democracy, what is it that reaſoning man is to underſtand by the terms? If there really exiſted in the world two or more diſtinct and ſeparate elements of human power, we ſhould then ſee the ſeveral origins to which thoſe terms would deſcriptively apply: but as there is but one ſpecies of man, there can be but one element of human power; and that element is man himſelf.

When men think of what government is, they muſt neceſſarily ſuppoſe it to poſſeſs a knowledge of all the objects and matters upon which its authority is to be exerciſed. In this view of government, the republican ſyſtem, as eſtabliſhed by America and France, operates to embrace the whole of a nation; and the knowledge neceſſary to the intereſt of all the parts, is to be found in the center, which the parts by repreſentation form: But the old governments are on a conſtruction that excludes knowledge as well as happineſs; government by monks, who know nothing of the world beyond the walls of a convent, is as conſiſtent as government by kings.

As it is not difficult to perceive, from the enlightened ſtate of mankind, that hereditary Governments are verging to their decline, and that Revolutions on the broad baſis of national ſovereignty, and Government by repreſentation, are making their way in Europe, it would be an act of wiſdom to anticipate their approach, and produce Revolutions by reaſon and accommodation, rather than commit them to the iſſue of convulſions.

From what we now ſee, nothing of reform in the political world ought to be held improbable. It is an age of Revolutions, in which every thing may be looked for. The intrigue of Courts, by which the ſyſtem of war is kept up, may provoke a confederation of Nations to aboliſh it: and a European Congreſs, to patronize the progreſs of free Government, and promote the civilization of Nations with each other, is an event nearer in probability, than once were the revolutions and alliance of France and America.

WISDOM *and* TRUTH; *An* ALLEGORY, *in two Parts. Part Second.*

(Concluded from page 150.)

ON a certain afternoon, when Contemplation was gone out to visit a poor sick neighbour, who had no money to pay a nurse, Cunning entered her chamber, where hung the mirror of Truth. When Wisdom, Contemplation, Honesty, Sincerity, and Content looked in this extraordinary mirror it reflected their features rather more pleasing than nature. But it had a very contrary effect on the countenance of master Cunning; for it heightened every feature in a disagreeable way, and made them look quite ugly. This he had often observed, and he vowed in his own mind, vengeance on the mirror: He was determined to break it, and throw the blame on his monkey.

Contemplation had locked the door of her chamber, when she went out; but he had a master-key for every room in the house. He went first to the window and broke a pane to make it appear as though the monkey had forced his way in there; he then applied his Hammer, with a hearty good will, to the object of his revenge; but to his extreme astonishment, every blow that he gave it seemed, if possible, to add to its lustre, till it shone at last so bright, and dazzled his eyes so much, that he was almost blinded with its rays. At last he exerted all his collected powers, determined to give one ponderous stroke, which he thought no brittle materials could resist. No sooner had the pigmy given this (in his own idea) giant-blow, than his hair stood on end, and his knees shook, for a voice was heard, from the mirror, to pronounce the following words:

> "Forbear rash youth, each effort's vain;
> My native virtue I retain:
> By Jove's own hand my substance made
> No art can soil, nor force pervade.

Wisdom one day gave Cunning an exercise to write; and the theme proposed was, the beauty of genuine simplicity. He finished it pretty soon, and read it off very fluently to Wisdom. Contemplation knew that it was one of her old exercises, that she had performed when her mamma lived on earth; and that by some means her brother had stolen it, and adopted it as his own; and though she would not herself have done so, on any account, she made excuses for his youth, and would not betray him.

They were at this time collected in her bower; and Cunning sat writing, with his back to Wisdom, and his face to the mirror of Truth, at the time he was pretending to compose this thesis. And every word that he wrote could be distinctly read by Wisdom in this extraordinary mirror, which was eventually doomed to be the bane of Cunning.

There was that evening, a servant going to the Mount of Vanity. Cunning was never permitted to write any thing to his mother, but what underwent the inspection of Wisdom; so he laid hold of that hour to write a letter, while he was pretending to compose his exercise. The contents of this epistle were as follow:

DEAR MAMMA,

IF you have any compassion on your poor dear boy, contrive some plausible pretence to get him from this horrid place: I hate the dull precepts of the old dotard my father, I do not comprehend their distant meanings: and as for the prude, my half sister, she is a precise affected piece of stuff, always staring up to the heavens, and talking to Sincerity and Content about the Elysian fields, and such visionary nonsense. If any of them are sick, oh they are going to be happy, they cry, in the Elysian fields! and if they hear of any misfortune that befalls any of their friends, oh! it is no matter, all is to be made up in those Elysian fields, the production of their own romantic brains! Our girls, Wit and Fancy, though they are sometimes very cross and scold, hit my taste much better than these insipid things. And as for old Honesty, who rules the roast here, I believe he never told a fib in his days. They are a curious groupe altogether; and when I get home I expect fine fun in taking off the whole family, which I can do to a nicety.

However, I do not wish to break with them publicly, as I know there are some people who will value me the more for having received an education under my father's roof, with all these oddities; though young as I am, I will venture to assert, that I could teach many to make a fortune, where Wisdom and his votaries would starve; for what with the mirror and scales, which latter old Honesty is forever poising and trimming, almost every thing that is smart and clever is reprobated. But I am in haste, so adieu.

P. S. Tell Stratagem it would be a nice scheme to come and run away with Contemplation; and I will help to steal her away: And then I know Wisdom will offer a great reward to the person who shall bring her home. I can get one who will do that, so that we shall share the gains, and he be never the wiser; for I can, at any time, out-quirk him. I don't wonder he loves Contemplation, for she is, in mind and person, the very spawn of himself.

But when I see Stratagem I will lay the whole plan, and he may improve on it, for I know he is very cute. It would do your heart good to know how I have contrived to write this letter, without Wisdom's seeing it. But here is a postscript, as long as one of my sister Contemplation's, when she writes to her bosom friend, Seraphina, or some such fine name. They are both eternal scribblers.

Again adieu.

Your ever dutiful son,

CUNNING.

Placid Grove, CONTEMPLATION'S *Bower,*

Arcadian Fields (Synonimous with Stupidity.)

He was on the point of folding up this curious billet, when Wisdom caſt his eyes toward the mirror, and read every word of the above, as before hinted.

From that moment, Wiſdom ſaw that his ſon was incorrigible. Then with a ſedate, but determined aſpect, he addreſſed him as follows; "Go, ingrate! go from my preſence; thou badge of thy mother's infamy and my weakneſs. Go, finiſh your wretched education, in the regions where you firſt drew breath!

Numerous, too numerous, will prove your deluded followers; but ſooner or later they will repent their unhappy choice: for although you have a prodigious ready knack at eluding a preſent evil, ſo ſhort-ſighted and mole-eyed are you, that by that means you are continually accumulating laſting and heavy troubles, which are beyond your penetration to ward off. Shifting and evading are the utmoſt boundaries of your limited capacity.

While integrity, generoſity, and that internal peace and ſelf-reverence, which ariſe from conſcious innocence, and a well ſpent life, are, and ever will be, ſtrangers to the boſom both of you and the pupils, who ſhall direct their maxims by the rules which, with bitter grief, I ſee you will hereafter teach to thouſands.

With the moſt heart rending anguiſh I now deplore, that one unguarded moment of mine brought into being ſo depraved a character; for I muſt tell you, that the ſhare of celeſtial ſpirit that you derive from me, will give you powers, though perverted ſadly, which you never could have attained, had you ſprung from Falſhood and an inferior father.

Cunning ſneaked off abaſhed, but not convinced, well pleaſed that he had eſcaped a whipping, which he thought would have inevitably been the conſequence of the contents of his letter being diſcovered.

Honeſty, who brought him two years before to the grove, was appointed to conduct him home. That faithful ſervant begged that all his trumpery might go with him, as none of his matters would be valued in the Placid Grove, ſo the monkey was taken under one arm, and a box under the other, containing his bird-lime, Fiſh-baits, decoys, gins, ſnares, traps, and inſtruments of torture; for Honeſty ſaid it did no good to burn them, as Stratagem and Cunning could, and would, ſoon ſet their heads to work, and make others as bad.

Honeſty conducted him to the confines of the Placid Grove, but not a ſtep farther would he go: And Cunning ſauntered home to his mamma, whom he told that he was diſmiſſed from his late abode, for ſpeaking with reſpect and affection of her. This ſhe readily credited, and was pleaſed with this proof of affection in her ſon. There Cunning lived ſome years with his mother, and when he came to man's eſtate he erected a large academy, and invited ſcholars, of all ages and ranks of life, to whom he lectured: His houſehold conſiſted of his own relations, from whom he was ſprung, and to whom he was related by the mother's ſide. Firſt, his grand-father and grandmother, Self-love and Subtilty. Second, his mother Falſhood; then his nurſe Diſſimulation, and her ſuppoſed father Hypocriſy, with Stratagem her ſon.

When the mount of Vanity became so formidable, Wisdom thought it was incumbent on him to set up something in the public way, in order to counteract the machinations of his neighbour. He was resorted to by a few choice spirits. Several of Wisdom's scholars, who had been but a short time with him, deserted over to the Mount of Vanity; but none, after they had studied a course of years under his roof.

Very few however of the pupils of Cunning came to be proselytes to the school of Wisdom; for their early years were so contaminated with the precepts and examples of the inhabitants of the mount, that they never could be brought to relish the calm and refined sentiments, which prevailed in the Placid Grove; and the disinterested maxims so opposed to Self-Love and his offspring.

Wisdom enlarged his family also, when he erected this school. His parents, Experience and Patience, came from above to assist him, and his spouse, Truth, with her mother, Simplicity, took a part of the academy with Contemplation.

Before the breach grew so wide between the mount and grove, a very sage bustling female, who lived exactly half way between the two families, undertook to bring about a coalition of parties. But she, in this negotiation, made such frequent and long visits to the two contending powers, that she was suspected by both sides, as leaning too much to the enemy; so she lost all her influence, and left them in disgust. Her name was Prudentia.

Wisdom, in all his lectures, had his offspring in view, that he might counteract his pernicious maxims. In one of his lectures, he delivered himself in words that many centuries afterwards, were adopted by a right reverend father of the English church, in a discourse he gave to the scholars of the University of Cambridge, when he meant to guard them against the poison, which, in a polished style and specious garb, was conveyed in certain modern celebrated letters, from a right noble lord to his son, which he thus characterizes.

"Adulation to those we despise; courtesy to those we hate; connections without friendship; professions without meaning; good-humour without benevolence; good-manners without morals; appearances saved, and realities sacrificed."

Another modern, and inestimable writer, has come across some of those lectures of Wisdom, and taken many passages from them, amongst which is the following.

"Criminal or not criminal, artifices are always dangerous, and frequently fatal. Dissimulation can hardly, in any case, be innocent, and plain sincerity ever was, and ever will be, the best policy. It is the natural system of capacious souls, and a certain indication of the superiority of the minds and genius of those who adopt it."

The Family and Inhabitants of the PLACID GROVE.

Wisdom, the son of Experience and Patience. Truth, wife to Wisdom, daughter of Jove and Simplicity. Contemplation, the daughter of Wisdom and Truth. Ingenuity, pupil to Wisdom, in early days, in the grove. Honesty, Content, and Sincerity, domestics to Wis-

dom and Truth. Wit and Fancy, formerly in their service, but dismissed for misdemeanours.

Inhabitants of the MOUNT *of* VANITY.

Falshood, daughter of Self-Love and Subtilty. Cunning, illegitimate son to Wisdom and Falshood. Dissimulation, foster-mother to Cunning, and natural daughter to Hypocrisy and Subtilty. Stratagem, foster-brother to Cunning, and son to Dissimulation, his companion in youth. Wit and Fancy, inhabitants of the mount, and handmaids to Falshood, formerly in the service of Wisdom and Truth, but dismissed from their employ for indiscretions.

PULCHERIA.

Montgomery County, 1791.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

HISTORY *of the* AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

(Continued from page 173)

1776. THE awful day now approached, on which the colonies were to be separated, for ever, from that country, which, till very lately, they had regarded with all the fond solicitude of filial attachment. Connected by the ties of a common origin and language; by a similarity of manners and customs; and, as they had long been taught to believe, by a participation of freedom, and a common interest in every publick measure, which affected either country, the colonists had hitherto joined in opposing the enemies of Britain, with as much enthusiasm as had been manifested by the people of Great Britain themselves. They gloried in the name and privileges of Englishmen; and nothing but the reiterated injuries and insults they experienced, could have induced them to renounce, for ever, a connection which had always been dear to them. But there was no middle course to be observed. Independence, and an unconditional submission to the mandates of a British ministry and the restrictions of a British parliament, were placed before them. They might choose which they would, but a choice must be made. This being the case, we need not wonder, that they preferred independence, with all its probable difficulties and dangers, present and remote, to a state of certain and abject slavery. Many felt an anxious regret at parting, as it were, with an ancient parent; but a sense of the injustice and cruelty of Britain had now changed affection into resentment, in the bosoms of a great majority of the Americans.

The motion for declaring the colonies free and independent was first made in Congress, by Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, on the seventh of June. This, however, had been in contemplation for some time, and was now generally expected to take place. In the discus-

sion of this great subject, all the powers of ingenuity and of eloquence were displayed. It was warmly opposed by some, and as strenuously supported by others. At the head of the speakers in opposition to the measure, was Mr. Dickenson, the celebrated author of the *Farmer's Letters*. This gentleman had long hoped for a reconciliation, upon terms mutually advantageous to both countries; and was still unwilling to renounce this expectation. Mr. John Adams (now Vice-President of the United States) was a warm and leading advocate for independence. He began a bold and animated speech on this occasion by invoking the god of eloquence; and proceeded to urge the immediate adoption of independence. He stated, that the voice of the people was in favour of the measure; that foreign assistance, which was absolutely necessary, could not be obtained without this previous step; and that the prospects of consequent happiness and glory rendered the declaration of independence as desireable as it was now become necessary. Mr Dickenson, in reply, began by invoking the Governor of the Universe to render all his arguments ineffectual, if the proposed measure were advantageous to the colonies. He thought, however, the war might be prosecuted with equal vigour without it; that it would divide the Americans, and unite the people of Great Britain; that assurances of foreign assistance should previously be obtained, and stipulated as a condition of declaring the colonies independent; and that great dangers were to be apprehended from disputes subsisting between several of the colonies, unless those disputes were accommodated before they cast off the authority of that tribunal which had hitherto been their common umpire. On the *fourth* of July, however, after a long and full discussion, the motion for declaring the colonies independent, was carried by an almost unanimous vote.

The much celebrated declaration of American independence, signed by the several members, on this occasion, was drawn up by Mr. Jefferson, and was expressed in the following terms.

"When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness,——That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its power in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments, long established, should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath

shewn, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to to throw off such government, and provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain, is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object, the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the publick good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation, till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature, a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into a compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the state remaining in the mean time exposed to all the danger of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these states; for that purpose obstructing the law for naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harrass our people, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states:

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our consent:

For depriving us, in many cases of the benefits, of trial by jury:

For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offences:

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighbouring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies:

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering fundamentally the forms of our governments:

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is, at this time, transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy, scarcely parralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow citizens taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the mercileſs Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress, in the most humble terms: our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts made by their legislature, to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge

of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name, and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, FREE and INDEPENDENT STATES; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown; and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain, is, and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honour.

JOHN HANCOCK, President.

New-Hampshire, Josiah Bartlett, William Whipple, Matthew Thornton.

Massachusetts-Bay, Samuel Adams, John Adams, Robert Treat Paine, Elbridge Gerry.

Rhode-Island, &c. Stephen Hopkins, William Ellery.

Connecticut, Roger Sherman, Samuel Huntington, William Williams, Oliver Wolcot.

New-York, William Floyd, Philip Livingston, Francis Lewis, Lewis Morris.

New-Jersey, Richard Stockton, John Witherspoon, Francis Hopkinson, John Hart, Abraham Clark.

Pennsylvania, Robert Morris, Benjamin Rush, Benjamin Franklin, John Morton, George Clymer, James Smith, George Taylor, James Wilson, George Ross.

Delaware, Cæsar Rodney, George Read.

Maryland, Samuel Chase, William Paca, Thomas Stone, Charles Carroll of Carrollton.

Virginia, George Wythe, Richard Henry Lee, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Harrison, Thomas Nelson, jun. Francis Lightfoot Lee, Carter Braxton.

North-Carolina, William Hooper, Joseph Hewes, John Penn.

South Carolina, Edward Rutledge, Thomas Heward, jun. Thomas Lynch, jun. Arthur Middleton.

Georgia, Button Gwynett, Lyman Hall, George Walton."

This declaration was received with the greatest demonstrations of joy, by the warm and spirited whigs of America; and although it detached some of the more timid from supporting the opposition to Great Britain, it was nevertheless productive of great advantages. It united the active friends of liberty more firmly, and inspired them with a determination to increase their exertions, in proportion as the object for which they were contending, had been rendered of greater magnitude——Formerly, they had no greater end in view, than merely to obtain the repeal of a few British acts of parliament; from the full attainment of which no more than a temporary relief from tyranny could, with any degree of certainty, be expected, as similar laws might again be enacted: but now, they were in pursuit of

national independence, and consequently would appear in a more respectable light, in the eyes of foreign powers, who might be disposed to lend them assistance.

In Europe, this declaration was considered as a masterly piece of composition; admirably calculated to justify the conduct of the Americans, by exhibiting, in a most animated and feeling manner, the oppressions which they had long and patiently borne; the numerous petitions and remonstrances which they had in vain presented to the throne; the fruitless appeal which they had made to their British fellow subjects; and the decent, but determined manner, in which they had at length resolved to break off, for ever, all political connection with a nation, from which they had experienced such repeated acts of injustice and indignity.

Leaving congress, for the present, engaged in forming a system of general government for the Union; and the several states employed, in like manner, in the formation and establishment of their respective constitutions, we shall now resume our history of the military operations of this eventful campaign.

(To be continued.)

ARTIFICE *of a* SOUTH-AMERICAN INDIAN.

A SPANISH traveller met an Indian in the middle of a desert; they were both on horseback. The Spaniard, who feared that his horse would not hold out to the end of his journey, because he was none of the best, asked the Indian who had a young and strong one, to make an exchange, but this he refused. The Spaniard, upon this, quarrelled with him; in short, they came to blows, and the agressor, being well armed, easily seized the horse he desired, and continued his journey. The Indian followed him as far as the nearest city, and then went and complained to the judge. The Spaniard was obliged to appear, and bring the horse with him; he treated the Indian as a cheat, affirming that the horse belonged to him, and that he had bred it from a colt. There were no proofs to the contrary; and the judge, undetermined, was going to dismiss the pleaders from the court, when the Indian cried out, "The horse is mine, and I'll prove it!" He immediately took off his mantle, and with it quickly covered the head of the animal; then addressing himself to the judge—— "Since this man," says he, "affirms that he has bred this horse, command him to tell, of which of his two eyes he is blind." The Spaniard, who would not seem to hesitate, instantly answered, "Of the right eye." "He is neither blind" said the Indian "of the right eye nor of the left." The judge, convinced by a proof, so ingenious and decisive, decreed him the horse, and the Spaniard was punished as a robber.

ON PROHIBITORY LAWS.

(From the Count DE BRUHL'S *General Principles of Economy.)*

PROHIBITIONS are either on the exportation of the produce of a country, or on the importation of those of foreigners. In examining the prohibitions on exports, we shall be under no necessity to take up our time respecting the exportation of artificial productions, for these being diametrically opposite to the first principles of political economy, we can scarcely suppose any government can be found so ignorant of those principles as to adopt any. The prohibition against the exportation of natural productions ought to be placed under the same predicament; there only then remains for us to examine the restrictions on the exportation of provisions and raw materials.

However true it may be, that a country, whose only commerce consists in the sale of its provisions to foreigners, deprives itself of a number of inhabitants, in proportion to what their provisions support elsewhere, it does not, however, follow that we must have recourse to prohibitions against the exportation of the disposeable excess of the subsistences of any country, in order to keep them within herself: the remedy in this case would be worse than the disease.

For if it is against the interest of a country to trade only with its own provisions, it would be infinitely more so to prohibit that sale, because the demand for any article is the source of its abundance. In these circumstances, the only course to take is, to encourage every species of labour and industry. A government convinced of the truth of this maxim, will find a number of expedients to prevent the exportation of their superfluous provisions, such as being assistant to the establishment of manufactures, the produce of which are in daily demand among its subjects; granting privileges, or giving bounties to inventors of arts and trades, which will employ a sufficient number of workmen to consume that excess of provisions which used to be exported; since, therefore, provisions are so indispensibly necessary, that the apprehension of scarcity is alone sufficient to cause the most alarming disorders, every well-administered state ought, by a permanent law, to fix a certain price, and on exceeding thereof, the exportation should be suspended. It seems to me, that, by this means, they would, on one hand, prevent the danger of insurrection, which the apprehensions of a famine occasion, and, on the other hand, they would do no injury to the progress of agriculture. The explication of this idea will form the subject of a particular chapter on the police of grain.

The prohibiting the exportation of raw materials, without involving such ill consequences as those we have just been considering, resembles them, nevertheless, by the same pernicious tendency to throw discouragement on that species of produce, and consequently to diminish, in proportion, either the quantity or the quality of those articles; for although it is much more advantageous to a country not to

export any but manufactured articles, yet it certainly would not be a means to benefit the condition of it, to deprive it of one part of the materials of its commerce. If England, by prohibiting the exportation of her wool, has not experienced this inconvenience, it is because when the prohibition took place, her manufactures were already sufficiently established, to employ the rich produce of her vast cultivations: but if, in the present state of Russia, she was to prevent the export of her hemp and tar, with a view to increase her rope works, and to construct a greater number of ships, would she not, by such greediness, expose herself to the risk of diminishing the produce of two articles, with which that empire carries on a very lucrative branch of commerce, and the profit on which will conduct her, much more assuredly, to the desired end of extending her navigation, and augmenting the industry of her inhabitants?

The laws prohibiting importations, to the examination of which we are now proceeding, extend also over four different objects, viz. On provisions, raw materials, natural productions, and manufactures.

It will be readily granted me that the importation of such provisions as do not rival the produce, ought to be exempt from every species of duty or restriction; this is a consequence of the following principle, that the welfare of the inhabitants of a country, and the increase of their number, are always in proportion to the facility of the means of subsistence.

It is also very evident, that the importation of all articles which supply materials for national industry, ought never to be restrained; but articles of luxury, and all artificial productions, ought they to enjoy the same liberty? This, then, is one of the questions on which there exist different sentiments. The arguments of those who lean towards a prohibition of those articles may be reduced to the following proposition. A country that does not prevent the importation must pay the value of them, now this value can only be paid two ways, by money, or by goods: if money, this is either the produce of the mines of the country which purchases, or what is produced by her commerce with other people. Thus, suppose a nation pays annually to another one million for articles of luxury, which she purchases of her, according to the common opinion, the purchasing nation carries on a most destructive commerce, which it is her interest to reduce as much as she can, by laying on it the strongest restrictions. On this occasion, we must first remark the insufficiency of such restrictions, and afterwards consider, that the money with which the purchasing country satisfies her balance is, in every imaginable case, the produce of the labour of a part of its inhabitants; for if it should happen, that the latter should employ in the production of that sum (permit me that expression) either more workmen or more miners, than the selling country has employed industrious people for producing the imported effects, is it not evident that the real advantage of this trade is not on the side of the former?

I confess this conclusion appears to me indisputable; yet I shall not be the less ready to agree, that if the purchasing country, by other means, such as the increase of industry in her inhabitants, can retain

the balance she pays to the selling country, she would be much in the wrong, not to avail herself of such advantage; but this concession proves nothing in favour of prohibitions, which, whatever efforts we may make, can never be exempt from the charge of being very useless and oppressive; for, to return to the example alluded to, when the sovereign of the purchasing people shall, after the most strict inquiries, be convinced he employs a smaller number of men than the selling country, in the trade they carry on together, all his cares ought only to extend to charge the foreign merchandise with easy duties, with a view to favour the establishment and progress of his own manufactures. There still remains for us to consider the exchange of domestick productions for imported goods of the same species, which constitutes the second method of paying the amount, since the number of industrious men who draw their subsistence from any branch of commerce, is the only infallible measure of its utility, it is evident that in any case a state cannot prohibit foreign merchandise without depriving part of their subjects of their employ, whose productions would serve for exchange. Now, of the four possible species of commerce, that of provisions, without contradiction, is the least profitable, because it carries out of a country exactly as much subsistence as it furnishes to others; notwithstanding so palpable a disadvantage, I dare pronounce that this commerce cannot be interrupted by prohibiting the importation of goods, without doing an essential injury to the public prosperity.

On the Style *of* Dr. SAMUEL JOHNSON.

(From the Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy.)

THAT Johnson's style is obscure, the testimony of all unlearned readers abundantly confirms; and from the same authority the cause may be stated to be his perpetual affectation of expressing his thoughts by the use of polysyllables of Latin derivation: a fault, which confines to erudition the most animating enforcements to virtue, and the most salutary rules of conduct, by disqualifying all who have not been made acquainted, by a liberal education, with the Latin appellations for things, or those, from whose memories the common use of the English names has in course of time effaced them. And let it not be said that such a class is beneath the attention of an author, when it is considered that almost the whole female world, from the circumstances of their education, are necessarily included in it. They learn the words of their language from conversation or familiar books; but with whom are they to converse, or what volumes of mystic pedantry are they to ransack, to be enabled to peruse the writings of Johnson without frequent recourse to his dictionary? Nor has this wilful exclusion of the unlearned readers served as a means of conciliating the favour of the learned, who, though they understand Latin, in an English work expect to find English; and,

whatever may be the peculiarities of their own ſtyle, are forward enough to diſcover and reprobate thoſe of others.

Thus, Dr. Johnſon obſerves, that Milton formed his ſtyle on a perverſe and pedantic principle: he was deſirous "to uſe the Engliſh words with a foreign idiom." But Milton's poetry, if indeed a defence be neceſſary, is ſufficiently defended by eſtabliſhed poetic licence: and for his proſe, let it be obſerved, that his ſubjects were learned, and I may ſay technical, and his readers of ſuch deſcription as left it matter of indifference whether they ſhould be addreſſed in Engliſh or in Latin: that he was engaged in repeated controverſies with foreigners, and his works deſigned to perſecute the fortunes of the exiled monarch over the continent, and written, in ſome ſort officially, by the Latin ſecretary to Cromwell. But ſurely that principle, which has led Johnſon to ſeek for remote words, though with the Engliſh idiom, is no leſs pedantic than Milton's, and much more injurious by its obſcurity. The reader who knows the ſingle words may perhaps be able to overcome the difficulties of the arrangement, but for ignorance of the ſingle words no remedy can with efficacy be applied. Johnſon had beſides no peculiarity of ſituation to plead in excuſe, but has on the contrary adopted his pedantic principle againſt the diffuſive influence of circumſtances. From the writer of an Engliſh dictionary, there might reaſonably be expected a nice ſelection of words, purely and radically Engliſh; or at leaſt the uſe of ſuch only as had been indiſputably admitted into the language: and the complexion of his readers, as well as the popular ſubjects he treated of, were ſuch as might be thought to furniſh little temptation to the learned and antiquated phraſeology. Indeed, if rules for periodical eſſays are to be drawn from the practice of their great Engliſh original, Mr. Addiſon, as the rules of epic poetry from Homer's, nothing can be more oppoſite to their true character; for as their profeſſed intent is the improvement of general manners, their ſtyle, as well as their ſubject, ſhould be levelled to underſtandings of every deſcription.

It may be ſaid, however, in favour of Johnſon, that the great lawgivers of criticiſm have indulged writers of eminence in a licenſe for calling in the aid of foreign words. But this indulgence, which of right belongs only to poetry, and the more dignified kinds of proſe, is even granted to them with but a ſparing hand; "dabitur licentia, ſumpta pudenter." Our author, who in his poems has made but little uſe of this privilege, has, in his proſe, extended a limited ſufferance to the moſt unqualified permiſſion and encouragement: he has preferred, on all occaſions where a choice was to be made, the remote word of Latin derivation to the received Engliſh one, and has brought in the whole vocabulary of natural philoſophy, to perplex and encumber familiar Engliſh writing. I do not ſpeak of a few words ſcattered rarely through his works, but of the general character of his ſtyle appearing in every page; not of ſingle acts, but of confirmed and prevailing habits; of new-raiſed colonies, diſdaining an aſſociation with the natives, and threatening the final deſtruction of our language. The reader, at his firſt peruſal of the Rambler, finds himſelf bewildered in a labyrinth of long and learned

words, distracted with foreign sounds, and exiled from his native speech, in perpetual want of an interpreter: disgusted at the intrusion of so many phrases to which he has been hitherto a stranger, he labours out a passage through the palpable obscure, and, when he has at last gained the golden prize, laments that so much time should have been wasted, in overcoming the unnecessary obstacles to its approach.

Though this representation may appear somewhat extravagant, yet a few sentences selected from this author may shew that it does not misrepresent the feelings of ordinary readers, nor exaggerate the difficulties of his style. "What then can ensue but a continual exacerbation of hatred, an unextinguishable feud, and an incessant reciprocation of mischief?" "When the radical idea shoots out into parallel ramifications, how can a consecutive series be formed of senses in their nature collateral?" "These bursts of light and involutions of darkness, these transient and voluntary excursions and retrocessions of invention." "Experience quickly shews the tortuosities of imaginary rectitude, the complications of simplicity, and the asperities of smoothness." Who could understand the meaning of the word *network*, by reading his definition in a dictionary, as "a thing reticulated, or decussated, with interstices between the intersections?" Or who could know, that "the practice of appending to the narratives of public transactions, more minute and domestic intelligence," meant filling the news-papers with advertisements, if Johnson himself had not kindly assisted us with the translation? Such passages are inconsistent with the censure passed in his Idler on a ridiculous citizen, who, by associating with stage-players, had learned a new language; and when a customer is talked to longer than he is willing to hear, is made to complain that, "he has been excruciated with unmeaning verbosity." The author of the Rambler, though not a citizen, has as little claim to the privilege of speaking unintelligibly.

There are, however, two occasions on which this fault appears yet more extravagant and ridiculous. The first of these is, where personages of different descriptions are introduced as writing in their own characters; for what can be more absurd than to suppose a similarity of style, and particularly where that style is so far from a simple one, in the writings of persons supposed to be of different ages, tempers, and occupations?—Yet all the correspondents of the Rambler seem infected with the same literary contagion, and the Johnsonian distemper, to have been equally communicated to all.—Thus Papilius talks of "garrulity, erratic industry, and heterogeneous notions dazzling the attention with sudden scintillations of conceit." "Victoria passes through the cosmetic discipline, covered with emollients, and punished with artificial excoriations."—Misocapelus tells of his "officinal state, adhesions of trade, and ambulatory projects;" and Hypertatus describes the "flaccid sides of a foot-ball swelling out into stiffness and extension," and talks of "concentration of understanding, barometrical pneumatology," and "tenuity of a defecated air." In such writings the hand of the master must be immediately perceived; the existence of the imaginary correspondents cannot even for a

moment be believed, and the Rambler ſtands convicted of an ineffectual and unneceſſary attempt to raiſe his own conſequence, by forging letters to himſelf.

The ſecond occaſion on which this fault is equally glaring, is where ordinary, or perhaps mean ſubjects, become neceſſary to be treated of; and a few inſtances from our author may well warrant my aſſerting that on ſuch occaſions, as he himſelf ſays leſs deſervedly of Dr. Young, "burleſque cannot go beyond him." Thus a calamity which will not admit being complained of, is in Johnſon's language, ſuch as "will not juſtify the acerbity of exclamation, or ſupport the ſolemnity of vocal grief:" to deny and profeſs, are to "pronounce the monoſyllables of coldneſs, and the ſonorous periods of reſpectful profeſſion:" when the ſkillet is watched on the fire, we ſee it "ſimmer with the due degree of heat, and ſnatch it off at the moment of projection:" for ſun-ſet, we read "the gentle coruſcations of declining day;" and for waſhing the face with exactneſs, we have, "waſhing with oriental ſcrupuloſity." Mean and vulgar expreſſions cannot have a more powerful recommendation, than that one of the ableſt writers in the Engliſh language could only thus avoid them.

Johnſon was a writer of too attentive and critical obſervation to be ignorant of this peculiarity of his own ſtyle. In the laſt paper of his Rambler, where he treats of his work as a claſſical Engliſh compoſition, he takes notice of it, and by a defence, which if admitted, would juſtify and recommend it, ſhews himſelf not a little prejudiced in its favour. After declaring, with ſome oſtentation, that "he has laboured to refine our language to grammatical purity, and to clear it from colloquial barbariſms, licentious idioms, and irregular combinations;" that "ſomething perhaps, he has added to the elegance of its conſtruction, and ſomething to the harmony of its cadence;" he proceeds to ſubjoin the following paſſage; "When common words were pleaſing to the ear, or leſs diſtinct in their ſignification, I have familiarized the terms of philoſophy, by applying them to known objects and popular ideas; but have rarely admitted any word not authoriſed by former writers: for I believe that whoever knows the Engliſh tongue in its preſent extent, will be able to expreſs his thoughts, without farther help from other nations."—The firſt of theſe reaſons of ſubſtituting, in place of a received familiar Engliſh word, a remote philoſophical one, ſuch as are moſt of Johnſon's Latin abſtract ſubſtantives, is its being more pleaſing to the ear. But this can only be deemed ſufficient by thoſe who would ſubmit ſenſe to ſound, and for the ſake of being admired by ſome, would be content not to be underſtood by others. And though, in ſome inſtances, for the ſake of tempering the conſtitutional roughneſs of the Engliſh language, this might be admitted, yet it never can be contended for in ſuch latitude as would juſtify the practice of our author.—This he well knew, and accordingly defending hard words in an eſſay in the Idler, he inſiſts largely on the ſecond plea, the greater diſtinctneſs of ſignification.

(To be concluded in our next.)

PETER PINDAR'S *Character of an* ANTIQUARIAN.

WHEN I first took the chair of criticism, I own that I trembled: for I am not ashamed to confess, that so great was my ignorance, that when a correspondent sent me an account of an ancient coin, I did not know a syllable about it—neither the meaning of reverse, exergue, or legend: but now, thank God, I know every thing appertaining to numismata, if I may be indulged with a Latin expression. Indeed the legends used to perplex me much, inasmuch as I exposed myself greatly; for I am not ashamed to confess my ignorance. I thought that AUG. upon a Roman medal, meant the month in which it was struck off; and therefore I deemed it Auguſt: and G. P. R. which I know now to be Genio Populi Romani, I verily thought to be a coin struck by one George Peter Richardson. The figures of Romulus and Remus sucking a she-wolf, I took to be two children milking a cow. D. M. for Diis Manibus, I took to be David Martin, or Daniel Musgrove. The half-word HEL. signifying Heliopolis, I imagined to be no other than the house of Satan. JAN. CLU. that is to say, Janum clusit, I took to be the name of a man. LUD. SÆC. F. I verily thought to be downright filthy, and blushed for the Romans: but, lo, I afterwards discovered it to be Ludos sæcularis fecit. COS. L. I thought to be Cos Lettuces, which only meaneth Conful; M. F. Mr. Ford, which meaneth Marci Filius. N. C. (wouldst thou think it, reader?) I translated Nincompoop; when, lo, it meaneth Nobilissimus Cæsar. P. P. which signifieth Pater Patriæ; I thought might mean Peter Pounce, or Philip Pumpkin. R. P. I also thought might mean Robert Penruddock, or Ralph Pigwiggin, or any other name beginning with those initials; but, lo, its true meaning I find to be Respublica, signifying, in English, the Republic. Thus it will appear that I am not ashamed to confess my error.

TRIB. POT. which only meaneth Tribunitia Potestate, I actually imagined meant a Tribe of Potatoes, and that the coin was struck on account of a plentiful year of that fruit. S. P. Q. R. which meaneth only Senatus Populusque Romanus, unwisely, yet funnily, did I make out to be Sam Paddon, a Queer Rogue; forasmuch as I was informed that the Romans struck coins on every trifling occasion. SCIP. AS. which signifieth no more than Scipio Africanus, I read literally Skip Ass; but for why, I could not say:—such was my ignorance.

Many were the impositions upon me; rings for pigs noses were sent me for nose-jewels worn by the Roman ladies; a piece of oxycroceum, just made in a druggist's shop, for the pitch that surrounded the body of Julius Cæsar; a large brown jordan, for a lacrymatory; a broken old black sugar-bason, for a druid urn; a piece of a watchman's old lanthorn, for a Roman lamp. The wig of the famous Boerhaave was also sent me as a curiosity; the roguery of which I did not discover till an engraving of the wig was nearly finished, costing me upwards of thirty shillings;—for, lo! reader, this great man never wore a wig in his life. In my obituary too I made great mistakes, from imposition; as I gave the deaths of many that were not dead, and others that never existed. Sometimes the wickedness of

correſpondents was ſuch, that I have perpetuated the deaths of bull-dogs, greyhounds, maſtiffs, horſes, hogs, &c. in my obituary, under an idea that they were people of conſequence. Indeed I have not ſtuck to the letter of my aſſertion at the head of my obituary, that declares it to be a record of conſiderable perſons; foraſmuch as I have ſometimes put a ſcavenger over a member of parliament, a pig-driver over a biſhop, a lamp-lighter over an alderman, and a chimney-ſweeper over a duke. My preſent antiquarian knowledge, gratitude maketh me confeſs that I owe it all to Mr.———, of Enfield, who ſome years ago was alſo an ignorant and illiterate gentleman, like myſelf, but by hard ſtudy, hath attained to his preſent perfection, as may be ſeen in our Topographia Britannica, which is not, as that arch enemy Peter Pindar hath aſſerted it to be, the idle production of a couple of fellows that want to make a fortune by a hiſtory of cob-walls, old chamber-pots, and ruſty nails. My friend Mr.———'s zeal for the promotion of antiquarian knowledge cannot be better proved than by his running the riſk of being well trounced, for borrowing one of king Edward's fingers, as he lay expoſed, a few years ſince, in Weſtminſter Abbey; which finger my friend, after having gently put it in his pocket, was forced to refund by order of the biſhop of Rocheſter, who, unluckily ſeeing the deed, did, to the diſgrace of the ſcience, order him to be ſearched. Had it not been for this impertinent and hawk-eyed attention of the biſhop, of ſir Joſeph Ayloffe, and of other antiquarians preſent at the opening of the monarch's coffin,—ſuch was the intrepidity of my antiquarian friend, that he would have attempted the head, inſtead of a pitiful finger, as he had on a large watchman's coat for the purpoſe. Nor muſt I omit the zeal of my friend ſir Joſeph Banks on the occaſion; who, on hearing what was going on, and ſuſpecting that king Edward might have been lodged in pickle, galloped off with a gallon jug, in a hackney coach, in order to fill it with the precious liquor, as a ſauce for his future Attic entertainments in Soho ſquare: but unfortunately no pickle was found.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

A LETTER *from a number of* GENTLEMEN *reduced to diſtreſs.*

MR. EDITOR,

THE ſubject on which we mean to enlarge, is of the utmoſt importance to ſociety. Let not the beau turn, diſguſted, from the theme. Let not the belle, in all the pride of beauty, elevation of ſentiment, dignity of demeanour, and delicacy of mind, reject the tale of the diſtreſſed.

Our deſign, at preſent, is not to dwell on a particular virtue or vice. Far is it from our intention to aim at rivalling the moraliſt. The heights of ambition ſhall remain unaſſailed, and the depths of philo-

ſophy unexplored, by us. Beauty, unconſcious as yet of our object, may prepare her curls with decent compoſure. The beau, in uniſon with faſhion and ſentiment, may, in all the ſtrains of his peculiar eloquence, declare his paſſion for the idol of his heart. Yet the belle cannot advantageouſly diſplay her charms, nor the beau ſufficiently exibit his natural perfections, or acquired accompliſhments, without having recourſe to our aſſiſtance, and ſupplicating our favour and protection.

The merchant acknowledges our power, and glories in our beneficial influence; ſince, having undergone a transformation, ſuperior to any recorded by Ovid, we travel, obedient to his commands, and ſubſervient to his intereſt, from Philadelphia to New-Hampſhire or Georgia. But theſe excurſions are trifles, when compared with our grand peregrinations. China and all the eaſt acknowledge our power; and from Kentuckey to Siberia, from Lapland to Canton, great is our influence, and immenſe are the benefits which we are allowed to confer. There is not a trader; and, with all the confidence of truth, we may aſſert, there is not an individual, who has not derived emolument, or experienced diſadvantage, from our exertions. Religion, together with morality, is widely diſſeminated by us. Philoſophy depends on us for permanent duration; and let us, once for all, inform you, that learning has been in ſtrict alliance with us for many ages.

The reveries of ſpeculative moraliſts; the dreams of profound politicians; and the enthuſiaſm of inſpired poets, depending on our aid, may reaſonably expect immortality. Theſe characters, when living, or at leaſt the greater part of them, we principally decorated. It is true, that ſome of them, having attained affluence, (ſuch is the ingratitude of mankind) rejected us with ſcorn. Strange are the inconſiſtencies of the human mind! Philoſophers have pretended to praiſe us, although they abhorred our preſence, and internally deprecated us as the greateſt of evils. Your readers, Mr. editor, muſt have peruſed the hiſtory of Diogenes. Amongſt all the philoſophers he ſeems to have been our trueſt advocate, not even the Adamites excepted, who flouriſhed ſome centuries ago, but are now extinct, unleſs we advert to ſome colonies of that ſect, eſtabliſhed in Caffraria.

What ſcience, what virtue have we not promoted? Were we inclined to give full ſcope to our own praiſes, we might aſſert, without being expoſed to the imputation of vanity, that AMERICAN FREEDOM was chiefly inculcated by us; that we, humble as we are, and deſpicable as we are thought to be, will ſupply hiſtory with the means of perpetuating that event; and that, although we were reprobated in one ſenſe by the advocates of liberty, yet we magnanimouſly perſevered to the laſt. We diſſeminated knowledge more widely and efficaciouſly than the tongue of the orator, and eſtabliſhed an epocha in hiſtory, in which future ages will exult with decent triumph. Yet, ſir, it muſt be owned, we are almoſt univerſally ſcorned, and even calumniated. But men have ever been ungrateful. Diſguſted at our appearance, they ungenerouſly deſpiſe us; and even wit in our company is turned into ridicule. They forget, that in our youth we afforded them warmth, comfort, and ornament; that at the period al-

luded to, we impelled the bark of commerce ; and that, on all occaſions, eſpecially in our ſtate of transformation, we have promoted ſcience, liberty, humanity, and religion. Let it not be objected againſt us, that we have ſometimes been made the inſtruments of ſcandal, ribaldry, and every ſpecies of licentiouſneſs, vice, and immorality. We, in common with the beſt gifts of heaven, have been abuſed ; and our fair form has been forced, by tyrant man, to aſſume a variety of frightful dyes, totally foreign from our nature.

We have not the aſſurance to hope, that you will advocate our cauſe in every particular ; yet, we have reaſon to expect, that, as we have long been ſincere votaries of literature, you will not altogether hold us in abhorrence.

Your degraded, abuſed,
Yet uſeful and humble ſervants,
R A G S.

MISCELLANEOUS ANECDOTES.

HENRY the Fourth of France, being informed that an edict which he had iſſued for the prohibition of luxury, was not enforced, publiſhed an explanatory proclamation, which ran thus,—— "Our order, in prohibiting articles of luxury, and particularly the uſe of lace and embroidery, only extends to the honeſt part of the community ; for, as neither rogues nor women of bad character are worthy our notice, they have our free permiſſion either to obey or neglect the edict as they chuſe."—This had the deſired effect, every taylor and mantua-maker in Paris being immediately ſet to work, to make ſuch dreſſes as the edict ordered to be worn.

THE late Jonas Hanway, was, in his perſon, of a remarkable thin habit, and in one of his walks in the neighbourhood of Parklane, he was met by a man much inebriated, who approached him in ſo irregular a direction, that it might have been concluded he had buſineſs on both ſides of the way. Mr. Hanway ſtopped when he came up to him, to give him his choice which he would take ; but the man ſtood as ſtill as his intoxication would let him, without attempting to paſs on either ſide. After viewing each other a moment, ſays Mr. Hanway, "My friend, you ſeem as if you had drunk rather too much :" to which the man replied, "*You ſeem as if you had eat rather too little.*"

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS once drew an important advantage from his aſtronomical knowledge :—He was driven, in diſtreſs, on the Iſland of Jamaica, and deſtitute of proviſions.—The natives refuſed him all aſſiſtance,—on which he arrayed himſelf in an auguſt garb,—threatened them with a plague, and told them, that in token of his vengeance, there ſhould be an eclipſe ;—which accordingly fell on the day he predicted, October 10th. 1493.—This wrought ſuch a dread on the ſavages, that they inſtantly brought the ſupplies he demanded, and fell proſtrate before him.

THE death of Euripides, a celebrated Greek dramatic poet, who flourished about four hundred years before the Christian era, was occasioned by excessive joy, for having obtained the poetic prize at the Olympic games.

MYSIAS, the brother of Antigonus king of Macedon, desired him to hear a cause, in which he was a party, in his chamber ;— "No, my dear brother," answered Antigonus, "I will hear it in the open court of justice ; because I must not be influenced by private considerations."

MAGNANIMITY *of a* CORSICAN ROBBER.

A PEASANT, who in the most extreme indigence had become the leader of a gang of banditti, and been long famous for his exploits, was at length taken and committed to the care of a soldier, from whom he contrived to escape. The soldier was tried and condemned to die. At the place of execution a man coming up to the commanding officer said, "Sir I am a stranger to you, but you shall soon know who I am. I have heard that one of your soldiers is to die for having suffered a prisoner to escape : he was not at all to blame ; besides, the prisoner shall be restored to you. Behold him here,—I am the man. I cannot bear that an innocent man should be punished for me, and I come to die myself."—"No, (cried the French officer, who felt the sublimity of the action as he ought,) thou shalt not die, and the soldier shall be set at liberty. Endeavour to reap the fruits of thy generosity : thou deservest henceforth to be an honest man"

CURIOUS EXPLANATION *of the words* ORDEAL *and* THEFT.

(Translated from a modern French Dictionary.)

ORDEAL. The generic name of all the trials practised in ignorant and barbarous ages, as those of fire, red hot iron, boiling water, single combat, the judiciary pottage, holy cheese, &c. I like Harlequin's the best, who taking a bottle from his judge's table, drinks it up, saying, "*May this wine poison me, if I be guilty.*"

THEFT. The action of appropriating to one's-self, what belongs to another, in any manner, without exception. This admitted, there are many thieves who style, and even fancy themselves, very honest men.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

IMPARTIAL REVIEW

OF LATE

American Publications.

The NEW-ENGLAND FARMER; *or* GEORGICAL DICTIONARY.

(Continued from page 178.*)*

CATTLE. "Where ſalt hay can be had, cattle ſhould now and then be treated with a little of it. It will ſo increaſe their appetite, that they will eat poor meadow hay, and ſtraw with it, or after it. But farmers who are far from the ſea, ſhould now and then ſprinkle ſome of their meaneſt fodder with ſalt diſſolved in water, which will anſwer the ſame valuable purpoſe. And at no ſeaſon of the year ſhould cattle be kept, for any long time, without ſalt. They are greedy after it, and it conduces to keep them in health."

"As to ſummer feeding, it is not fit that a whole ſtock go promiſcuouſly in the ſame paſture. Some would be over much fed, and ſome not enough. A farmer's paſture-grounds ſhould be made into a number of ſeparate incloſures; the greater the number the better. Milch kine and cattle for ſlaughter ſhould have the firſt of the feed in each incloſure; then working oxen; afterwards, young ſtock, horſes and ſheep. When each kind have had their turn, for two or three days or perhaps a week, the apartment may be ſhut up, till it be ſufficiently grown for the milch cows.—By ſuch a rotation much may be ſaved; but little of the graſs will be waſted by trampling; and what one ſort leaves another will eat; ſo that none of the graſs will be loſt."

DRAIN. In this article we have directions for diſcovering whether a ſwamp be worth draining; and alſo for making the drains.

"To make a hollow drain, dig a channel between thirty and thirty-ſix inches wide at the top, and ſix inches, or the breadth of a ſpade, at the bottom, and three feet deep, giving it juſt deſcent enough to make the water run. Fill it half full, or more, with ſmall ſtones, thrown in at random, and cover them with a layer of ſtraw, leaves, or the ſmall branches of trees with the leaves on them; then fill it up to a level with the ſurface, with the earth that was thrown out. Such a drain, as it will not choke or fill up, will never need repairing.

If ſtones be ſcarce, long faggots, or faſcines, laid in the trench, will anſwer as well, ſo long as they laſt; which being ſecluded from the air, will not rot ſoon. Some ſay they have known them to anſwer well for forty years.

If a plain piece of ground be too wet to be made fit for tillage by ridge-ploughing, it ſhould be made drier by hollow drains. If no lower place be adjoining, where the drains may have an outlet, holes ſhould be dug in ſome of the loweſt parts of the plain, to examine what ſtrata are under the ſoil. It is likely that a ſtratum of clay, or of ſome other earth not eaſily penetrated by water, is the real cauſe of the wetneſs of the ſoil If you find it ſo, then dig through the ſtratum, and below it, till you come to looſe gravel, ſand, or ſomething that will eaſily imbibe water: Fill up the hole with ſtones, and direct your hollow drains to it. It will ſerve for a perpetual outlet.

The peculiar advantages of hollow drains are, that they will not need repairing, as they do not fill up; that no ſoil is waſted, or rendered uſeleſs by them; that a plough may paſs over them to as great a depth as is neceſſary in any kind of tillage; and carts and other carriages are not obſtructed by them. So that theſe drains may paſs acroſs roads without detriment, when the deſcent requires it. It is often neceſſary to hollow-drain roads to lay them dry."

DROUGHT. To guard againſt the ill effects of drought, which are often ſeverely felt in this country, our author ſhows the neceſſity of having more of our low lands under improvement, both for grain and paſture. That we may ſucceed with one crop, if another ſhould fail, it will be proper to have a variety of crops on a farm each year, ſome that are leaſt injured by a drought, and ſome that require the moſt rain; ſome that are earlier, and others that are later in ſeaſon. Where a ſtream can be brought from a rivulet or ſpring it will be very uſeful for watering parched lands.

EXPERIMENTS. "It is wiſhed that an enterpriſing ſpirit were more excited, that we might have reaſon to hope for great improvements in huſbandry. There is an extenſive field for experiments; and making them might be a good amuſement to perſons who have leiſure. Trench-ploughing, which has never yet been attempted in this country, ought to be tried, at leaſt by thoſe who have deep ſoils, clear of rocks and other obſtacles. Trials ſhould be made of the advantage of ploughing flat land in ridges;—and whether ridge-ploughing will not ſecure grain from deſtruction by winter froſts. Attempts ſhould be more extenſively made to raiſe winter-wheat, which is the moſt valuable of all grain. We ſhould endeavour to find out the beſt ſteeps for grain and other ſeeds, to ſecure them againſt inſects and ſmut;—what are the beſt quantities of ſeed for ſowing in different grounds;—whether good peat and marle be not to be found in plenty in various parts of the country, and the advantage of marling, and ſowing peat-aſhes;—whether drained ſwamps are not the moſt profitable of all our lands;—whether new or old dung will produce the beſt crop, and whether compoſt will not do better than either;—how lime will anſwer as a manure in our hot ſummers—on what kind of ſoil it is moſt ſerviceable, &c. &c. &c. &c. &c. &c.

FALLOWING *of land*. "Nothing can be better than fallowing, to recruit land that is too much exhauſted by cropping. The oftener it is ploughed, the more it is enriched. Some have ploughed their fallow-land no leſs than a dozen times; and, if I am not miſinformed, have, by doing ſo, changed ſome of the poorer ſpots, ſo as to make them too rich for a crop of wheat."

"If dung be laid on fallows to recruit the ſoil, it ſhould be done early in the year; that the ploughings may more thoroughly mix it with the earth; and that the ſeed of weeds contained in the dung may be killed. But when old dung, or compoſt, is laid on to help the next crop, the right time to do it is juſt before the laſt ploughing. It ſhould be turned in with the plough without delay.

But if dung cannot be had, the want of it may be ſupplied by more frequent ploughings.—By fallowing, the weeds are moſt effectually killed, and converted to manure. The land is finely pulverized, ſo that the paſture of plants is greatly increaſed: and a new ſurface by each ploughing is expoſed to the influences of the atmoſphere; ſo that the ſoil is deeply penetrated, or even ſaturated with fertilizing particles."

"The farmer cannot wiſh," ſays one, "for any thing more beneficial to his huſbandry, than moderate ſhowers after each fallow, to bring the ſeeds of every weed to vegetate, in order that, being turned down by ſeveral ploughings, they may be the more effectually deſtroyed."—I may add, that the more the land is ploughed when the dew is on it, the more it will be enriched. Too much of this work cannot be done early in the morning, eſpecially if the ground be dry: And when it is ſo wet as not to crumble, but turn up in clods or potch like mortar, it ſhould not be ploughed, or meddled with at all."

"Summer-fallowing, however, is not ſo faſhionable among European farmers at preſent, as it has been. For they have found that there are certain crops which do not impoveriſh the ſoil, but rather improve it. Such crops, for inſtance, as peaſe and other things which form a cloſe ſhade over the ground, which kill weeds, and increaſe the putrefaction in the ſoil. Therefore many rather chooſe to avail themſelves of the advantage of improving crops, rather than loſe a year in fallowing."

"But winter-fallowing is always allowed to be profitable; and I have found it to be ſo by experience. The advantage of it is moſt viſible in ſtiff ſoils; for the froſt and winds in winter will do much towards making them mellow and fine. One ploughing in the fall, and another in the ſpring, will put the land into better order

for feeding, than two ploughings in the ſpring. Land that is apt to be wet may be ploughed the earlier in the ſpring, for having been winter-fallowed. The ſeed may be got in the ſooner, which, in ſome crops, in a great advantage."

" Green ſward land ſhould always be broke up in the fall, if it be only for peaſe or potatoes, and the earlier in the fall the better. For either of theſe crops, nothing more will be needful in the ſpring, than a harrowing with a heavy drag. On half an acre of poor ground thus managed, and without any manure, I once raiſed a hundred buſhels of potatoes."

HEMP, a plant with a tough fibrous coat, which anſwers the ſame purpoſes as flax, but is coarſer and ſtronger.

The plant is tap-rooted, and therefore does beſt in a deep and free ſoil. It is luxuriant, and quick in its growth, and therefore requires a rich, and well prepared ſoil. The ſoils which have been found to ſuit it beſt, are a rich gravelly loam, or a looſe black mould, which is dry and deep. It is an error to think that it needs a wet ſoil, for it bears drought almoſt equally with any plant that we cultivate.

Mr. Elliot found by experiment, that it anſwered very well on a drained ſwamp: And he tells of a man in the Jerſies, who raiſed as much hemp yearly, on half an acre of ſuch land, as brought him fifty pounds, York money. It is not uncommon for one acre to yield half a ton, which will ſell for twenty pounds in caſh, at the loweſt. And I am told by one who is much acquainted with it, that it is more eaſily broken and ſwingled than flax; and that oftentimes the brake will do all that is neceſſary in cleaning it.

To prepare land for a crop of hemp, the land ſhould be ploughed to a good depth in the fall of the year preceding. If it be green ſward land, it ſhould be ploughed as early as Auguſt or September, that the ſward may be perfectly rotten. And if it were ploughed in ridges it would be the better, and fit for ſowing the earlier. And by croſs ploughing and harrowing in the ſpring, it ſhould be made extremely fine and mellow. A little dung ſhould be applied, if the land be not in the beſt heart; and the fall is the beſt time to apply it. But if compoſts are uſed, they ſhould be laid on juſt before ſowing.

The time of ſowing the ſeed is as early in the ſpring as the ſoil can be got into good order, as it is a plant that is not eaſily injured by the froſt; but the middle of May will not be too late.

The ſeed for ſowing ſhould be of the laſt year's growth, as older ſeed is not wont to come up ſo well. The quantity of ſeed for an acre in the broad-caſt way, is three buſhels; but half that quantity, in the drill method, will be enough. If the land be poor, a ſmaller quantity will ſerve. The ground ſhould be watched after ſowing, that birds do not take away the ſeeds.

The drill method is on ſome accounts preferable to the other. For though in the firſt crop it will fall ſhort, it exhauſts the land leſs; and therefore in the long run, it may be more profitable, But it produces more ſeed, and this method is certainly advantageous on account of the more convenient pulling of the hemp. If ſown on narrow ridges, and the trenches ſhovelled out after ſowing and harrowing, I ſuſpect the broad-caſt way would have the preference.

As the correſpondent parts of generation are on different plants, they are of two diſtinct ſorts, male and female, and require different treatment. I will venture to aſſert, contrary to M. Mercandier, that the male is the plant which bears the flowers, and the female that which bears the fruit, or ſeed.

That which bears the flowers, will be fit for pulling about the end of July. Its ripeneſs is known by its growing yellow at the top, and white at the root, by the falling off of the flowers, and the withering of the leaves. If care be taken in pulling not to hurt thoſe plants which are left, they will thrive the better, as they will have more room, and as the earth will be ſtirred about their roots. And the drill method is favourable to this work, as the pullers need not tread among the thickeſt of the hemp.

After pulling, it muſt be put into the water without delay, to ſteep. Ponds and ſtill waters are beſt. It will not take more than four or five days to water it enough. But it muſt be watched, leſt it ſhould be over done. After watering, it muſt be ſpread and dried in the ſun

The fruitful kind does not ripen till about five or ſix weeks later. Its ripeneſs is known by the ſeeds turning brown. After it is well dried, and the ſeed taken off by

a kind of coarſe comb, it muſt be watered. It will take almoſt three times as much watering as the firſt kind. The one kind is more fit to be manufactured into thread and cloth, the other more ſuitable for rigging of ſhips, and ropes. But the lateſt kind may be made pliable and fine, if labour enough be beſtowed upon it. Inſtead of ſteeping, ſpreading hemp in the dew will anſwer, as I have found by experience; and this method is practiſed in England.

The dreſſing of hemp may be performed in the ſame manner as that of flax, if it be not uncommonly large and long. A perſon who is well acquainted with the culture and manufacture of hemp, aſſured me, that when his neighbour raiſed it on a drained ſwamp, he had it twelve feet long; and, that he might manage it eaſily in dreſſing, he cut it in the middle. It was then as long as ordinary hemp, and as ſtrong for every purpoſe.

If ſome of the ſtalks of hemp ſhould be too large and ſtubborn for the brake, they may be put by themſelves to be peeled by hand. The doing of this may be an amuſement for children and invalids.

But to facilitate the dreſſing of hemp, mills ſhould be erected for doing it. Or the machinery may be an appendage to ſome other mill. Two brakes ſhould be moved together, a coarſer and a finer, placed head to head, that the handfuls may be eaſily ſhifted from one to the other. It is light work for two boys to tend them. But the breaking of large hemp by hand, is ſevere labour for the ſtrongeſt men.

If no convenient ſtream be at hand, a mill may be conſtructed to be worked by a horſe. It was formerly the cuſtom to beat hemp abundantly with mallets, or with peſtles in large mortars, or in fulling mills, to make it ſoft, and fit for ſpinning. But M. Mercandier has ſhewn how it may be more eaſily done, by ſteeping it in warm water, or in lie, and waſhing it. See his *Treatiſe on Hemp.*

The great profit of a crop of hemp, and its being an article that will readily command caſh, ſhould recommend the culture of it to all our farmers. Beſides the hemp itſelf, of the value of twenty pounds per acre, after it is dreſſed, the ſeed of an acre muſt be allowed to be of conſiderable value. Perſons need not fear their crops will lie upon their hands, when they conſider the vaſt ſums of money which are yearly ſent to other countries for this article, almoſt enough to deprive the country of a medium, and how naturally the demand for it will increaſe as it becomes more plenty. There is no reaſon to doubt of ſucceſs in raiſing hemp, if the ſoil be ſuitable, and well prepared; for it is liable to no diſeaſe; cattle will not deſtroy it, unleſs it be with their feet, and it is an antidote to all ſorts of devouring inſects. Neither is the plant difficult as to climate. Though the hotteſt climates do not ſuit it, temperate and cool ones do; and it has been found, by the ſmall trials that have been made, to thrive well in the various parts of New-England. The moſt northern parts are very ſuitable for the growing of hemp.

(To be continued.)

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

A NEW ſpecies or variety of the Peruvian bark is deſcribed by Dr. Swartz, in the eighth volume of the *New Tranſactions of the Royal Swediſh Academy*. It is found on the banks of the rivers in the iſland of St. Domingo. Dr. Swartz ſays this ſpecies is more ſoluble, and its active powers more eaſily extracted, than thoſe of the common bark, to which it is not inferior in its powers, at leaſt when freſh.

Another article, in the volume above mentioned, contains an account of ſome curious experiments made by M. Zacharias Nordmark, with a deſign to try whether the heating powers of the ſun exiſted alſo in the coloured rays ſeparated by a priſm. He threw the coloured rays on the bulbs of different thermometers, and found they pro-

duced a ſmall expanſion of the mercury, ſcarcely amounting to a degree of Fahrenheit. It does not appear that the different colours produced different heats.

From the ſame volume we learn, that M. Tornſten found the altitude of the top of the Norway Alps, called Oreſkut, to be 2040 ells above the lake of Jutland, which lake is known to be 614 ells higher than the ſea; and that trees grow no higher up on the mountain than at about 1100 ells above the lake, or 1714 above the ſea. We have ſelected this, as being a very curious and important fact—For, if we allow the ell of Stockholm to be half of our ell, or 22½ inches, (which we believe to be exact) we ſhall find that in the latitude of this mountain, which is between 62 and 64 degrees, the boundary of vegetation is at about 3214 feet above the ſea.

MANUFACTURE *of* PAPER *from* WILLOW-BARK.

The *Society inſtituted in London for the encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce,* have conferred a premium of ten guineas on Mr. Greaves, for making paper from raw, vegetable matter. He uſed the bark of young willows, unmixed with any other ſubſtance, and, from a calculation of the expenſe attending this manufacture, which accompanies his eſſay, it is not improbable that this, and other bark, may ſhortly ſuperſede the uſe of rags and ropes, at leaſt in making coarſe paper and paſteboard.

ANATOMY.

A DISSERTATION on the ſpermatic veſſels, their valves, and a newly diſcovered paſſage, by which the ſemen is returned to the blood, by a Dr. Prochaska, is mentioned in a foreign journal. In two inſtances, by injecting the vaſa deferentia, he found that the mercury paſſed into the ſpermatic vein; hence he concludes, that there is a paſſage by which the ſemen is returned into the blood.

MAGNETIC VARIATION.

IN the third volume of the *Memoirs of the Royal Daniſh Academy*, publiſhed in 1788, is an account of the variations of the magnetic needle at Copenhagen for 50 years, with the mean annual variations, by Mr. Lon, the tables ſhow the irregularity of the variation, though upon an average, it has encreaſed about 8′ annually. In the ſame volume, there is a diſſertation upon the influence of the auróra borealis on the variation of the magnetic needle, from obſervations made in Greenland, in the years 1786 and 1787.

THE firſt and ſecond volumes of Haller's Journal of medical literature have lately been publiſhed at Bern. Our readers will be aſtoniſhed to hear that Haller, between the years 1745 and 1774, reviewed near 12000 medical publications, for a German periodical work. Theſe reviews collected will form the preſent Journal.

THE

Columbian Parnaſſiad.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SIR,

I encloſe you ſome ſonnets, written by an American gentleman.—If you think their poetical merit ſufficient to entitle them to a place in your Aſylum, I ſhall perhaps forward you ſome more.

I am, ſir, your friend &c.

J. M.

Nottingham, March 17th, 1791.

SONNET.—*To* YOUTH.

THOU blue-eyed goddeſs of our early years,
Thou ſweet magician, by whoſe mighty power
Is charmed away the ſwiftly fleeting hour,
By hope deluded— undiſturbed by fears;
Youth; —thou lov'd ſtranger to the heart-bred cares
Of riper manhood, —in thy fragrant bower
Oft have I gathered every riſing flower,
And crop'd thy roſes; —now my falling tears
Bedew the thorns where roſes are no more:
For ſtill remembrance o'er thoſe ſcenes will roll,
And nothing charms, as thou waſt wont,
Nor ſocial converſe, nor the flowing bowl——
O why will fancy thus thy joys reſtore,
Which never can return to cheer my ſoul!

SONNET.

DOWN a ſlop'd hill, o'ergrown with moſſy trees,
Where cryſtal cataracts deſcending play,
I wander at the ſolemn cloſe of day,
And mix my ſighs with the freſh weſtern breeze;
But not the glories of the ſetting eve,
The freſhning breeze, nor ſaffron-tinctured weſt,
Can bid my troubled mind be huſh'd to reſt,
Or cauſe corroding care my breaſt to leave:
Like Albion's queen, on her ſick couch reclined,
Who mourn'd the loſs of Calais, ---and confeſs'd
"If when I'm dead you open my ſad breaſt,
There, neareſt to my heart, you'll Calais find;"
So I, till death, a broken heart ſhall bear,
Which, after death, will ſhew the prints of grief and care.

SONNET, *written December 21ſt.*

I LOVE thee, Winter, in thy ſhorteſt days,
When clouds ariſe and bleak north-eaſt winds blow;
Or when upon the mountains, white with ſnow,
The languid ſun reflects his feeble rays,
And from the diſtant ſouth his beams diſplays;
Or when the horizon he ſinks below,
And weſtern ſkies with deep reflection glow,
While on the cheerful hearths the bright fires blaze.
No; —not the verdure of returning ſpring,
Nor all the Muſic of the vocal grove,
Can joys to me, compared with winter, bring,
For winter's joys domeſtic moſt I love,
Her ſhorten'd days, when in the ſocial ring
Souls mix with ſouls, and minds their powers improve.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

The China CUP, *and the Pennsylvanian* JUG; *A Fable.*

Addressed to a young Lady.

ELVIRA, read the verse design'd
By reason to conduct your mind
To earthly peace, to lasting bliss;
And, as you read, vain pride dismiss.
Should in your breast that passion reign,
My counsel will be heard in vain;
For truth, though aided e'en by wit,
To vanity may oft submit;
And all the precepts of the sage
To folly yield, and fashion's rage.
How oft, Elvira, have I press'd
Thy infant beauties to my breast!
Now in the bloom of gay sixteen,
Easy your shape, sublime your mien,
Health sweetly glowing on your cheek,
With grace you move, with grace you speak.
Not yet profan'd by fashion's hand,
Your tresses every heart command;
Nor has tyrannic, cruel taste
Restrain'd the freedom of your waist.
Nature, allied with decent art,
Each fancy charms, and wins each heart;
But those most impudently flatter,
Who art prefer to bounteous nature.
To make you an accomplish'd maid,
Instruction long has lent her aid.
Elvira! now on you depends
The happiness of all your friends,
Learning can often joys bestow;
And often leads the mind to woe.
Envy its rays can never hide;
But they are oft eclips'd by pride.
Wit 'tis confess'd, most bosoms warms;
Yet modestly disclose its charms.
If wit is decently reveal'd,
We value what remains conceal'd;
If wit would wantonly delight,
No longer praise it can excite.
Accomplishments claim admiration,
When they reject all ostentation;
But those, superior parts who claim,
Are laugh'd at when they miss their aim.
Since fables may to truth conduce,
Read what was written for your use.
A China-cup, where lustre glow'd,
Where fancy her exertions show'd.
Where various beauties charm'd the eye,
Bright as the stars, which deck the sky,
Type of fragility and taste,
Upon the chimney-piece was plac'd.
Near it a jug, which ow'd its birth
To modest Pennsylvanian earth,
In inoffensive quiet stood——
Its plainness China's offspring view'd
With haughty looks, which shew'd disdain:
Then utter'd this imperious strain.
"Begone, thou child of common clay,
And hide thee from the face of day
The cellar seek; thence, fill'd with beer,
Thou may'st attend the clown to cheer;
But ne'er to please the gay presume——
Begone, and give thy betters room."
More by contempt, than fear, restrain'd,
Silent the modest jug remain'd.
Hot in pursuit of fragrant cheese
A mouse ascends the chimney-piece;
And as he wanders here and there,
Thrusting his whiskers every where,
He overturns (unlucky beast!)
This haughty boaster from the east——
With the loud crash the walls resound,
And glittering fragments strew the ground.
The mouse now fearful of a riot,
Retreats, and leaves the jug in quiet.
Betty, alarmed, had ceas'd to chat,
And Pus began to smell a rat.

MORAL.

Beauty and weakness lead to woes;
Plainness and strength insure repose.

Philadelphia, April. 1791.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

On reading a practical discourse upon Death, two sermons, and other works, by WILLIAM SHERLOCK. D. D.

(Written in 1740, *by a gentleman of Philad. who is still living.)*

SHERLOCK, the subjects which
employ'd thy pen,
Deeply concern the careless sons of men;
Death, *Judgment*, *Heav'n*, and *Hell*, thy
thoughts engross'd. [lost:
Themes where a meaner genius had been
But strong the pinions of thy fancy were,
Which through such trackless paths thy
soul could bear.
No objects vain and base thy mind engag'd; [wag'd:
A constant war with these thy virtue
Pure as thy soul thy meditations were,
These soar'd above this region's grosser air:
Æthérial glories, *Sherlock*, were thy care;

Thy mind minutely trac'd life's wand-
'ring maze,
To shew mankind the error of their ways,
And how in nobler views they might employ their days:
The God of love and God's life-giving son
With peerless charms, thy whole affection won:
Thy one desire was to perform his will,
And spotless to preserve thy soul from ill;
A shining light wast thou through all thy days,
Serenely bright thy zeal for *Christ* did blaze;
He died for truths thy hallow'd lips declar'd;
And all assented who thy doctrine heard;
Replete thy sermons were with solid sense,
And always blest with sacred influence:
Thy private life did every virtue teach,
And every heart thy winning carriage reach.
Soon as thou here hadst run thy christian race,
Among bright *Seraphs* thou didst claim a place:
Thy claim allow'd, they hail'd a friend set free
From his late bondage in mortality;
With cheerful notes the heav'nly host did greet
Thy soul arriv'd to its exalted seat;
With loud acclaim receiv'd their welcome guest
To glorious mansions of eternal rest;
Where now with *Christ* thou dwell'st supremely blest.
Though thus to die to thee was endless gain,
A loss immensely great the flock sustain,
Who on thy ministry did late attend,
To hear such truths as ev'ry heart might mend;
Joy fill'd thy soul; but grief their breasts did swell
As great as men could bear, or tongue can tell:
Yet in thy lines each some relief could find,
To soothe the sorrow that o'erwhelm'd his mind:
Thy works are legacies each gracious mind
Devoutly reads; for such in them may find
The way to bliss,—and comfort e'en in death,
When fading clay resigns its fleeting breath.
O may I read with a discerning eye,
And each great truth and mystick sense descry;
May God a blessing to my reading give,
That, as thy page instructs, I here may live;
And, when my days shall to a period tend,
Be mine, as *Shelock's* was, a happy end!

J. R.

Philad. Satur. March. 29, 1740.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

On the elegant simplicity of the female dress among the people called Quakers.

THERE is a native charm in decent plainness
That splendour can't eclipse, beauty scarce heighten,
Nor yet the whim of fashion antiquate,
In reason's sober view; besides, it is an ornament so rare,
Humility may innocently prize it,
And modesty display for imitation.

C. D.

MADNESS.

A Poem, by the late Rev. Mr. Penrose.

SWELL the clarion, sweep the string,
Blow into rage the muse's fires!
All thy answers, echo bring,
Let wood and dale, let rock and valley ring,
'Tis madness' self inspires!

Hail, awful madness, hail!
Thy realm extends, thy powers prevail,
Far as the voyager spreads his vent'rous sail;
Nor best, nor wisest are exempt from thee,—
Folly—folly's only free.

Hark!—to the astonished ear
The gale conveys a strange tumultuous sound!
They now approach, they now appear!—
Phrenzy leads her chorus near,
And dæmons dance around.—

Pride—ambition idly vain,
Revenge and malice swell her train,
Devotion warp'd—affection croft,

Hope in diſappointment loſt,
And injur'd merit, with a downcaſt eye,
(Hurt by neglect) ſlow ſtalking heedleſs by.

Loud the ſhouts of madneſs riſe,
Various voices, various cries,
Mirth unmeaning—cauſeleſs moans,
Burſts of laughter—heartfelt groans,
All ſeem to pierce the ſkies.

Rough as the wintry wave, that roars
On Thule's deſart ſhores,
Wild raving to the unfeeling air,
The fetter'd maniac foams along,
(Rage the burthen of his jarring ſong)
In rage he grinds his teeth, and rends his ſtreaming hair.

No pleaſing memory left—forgotten quite
All former ſcenes of dear delight,
Connubial love—parental joy,
No ſympathies like theſe his ſoul employ,
—But all is dark within, all furious black deſpair.

Not ſo the love-lorn maid,
By too much tenderneſs betrayed;
Her gentle breaſt no angry paſſion fires,
But ſlighted vows poſſeſs, and fainting, ſoft deſires.
She yet retains her wonted flame,
In all but reaſon ſtill the ſame.
Streaming eyes,
Inceſſant ſighs,
Dim haggard looks, and clouded o'er with care,
Point out to pity's tears, the poor diſtracted fair.
Dead to the world—her fondeſt wiſhes croſs,
She mourns herſelf thus early loſt —
Now ſadly gay, of ſorrows paſt ſhe ſings,
Now penſive, ruminates unutterable things.

She ſtares—ſhe flies—who dare ſo rude
On her ſequeſter'd ſteps intrude?
'Tis he—the Momus of the ſlighty train,
Merry miſchief fills his brain.
Blanket robb'd, and antic crown'd,
The mimic monarch ſkips around;
Big with conceit of dignity he ſmiles,
And plots his frolics quaint, and unſuſpected wiles.

Laughter was there, but mark that groan,
Drawn from the inmoſt ſoul!

"Give the knife dæmons, or the poiſon'd bowl,
To finiſh miſeries equal to your own!"
Who's this wretch with horror wild?
—'Tis devotion's ruin'd child,
Sunk in the emphaſis of grief,
Nor can he feel, nor can he aſk relief.
Thou, fair religion, waſt deſign'd,
Duteous daughter of the ſkies,
To warm and cheer the human mind,
To make men happy, good, and wiſe.

To point where ſits, in love array'd,
Attentive to each ſuppliant call,
The God of univerſal aid,
The God, the Father, of us all.

Firſt ſhewn by thee, thus glow'd the gracious ſcene,
'Till ſuperſtition, fiend of woe,
Bade doubts to riſe, and tears to flow,
And ſpread deep ſhades, our view and heaven between.
Drawn by her pencil, the Creator ſtands
(His beams of mercy thrown aſide)
With thunder arming his uplifted hands,
And hurling vengeance wide.
Hope, at the frown aghaſt, yet ling'ring flies,
And daſh'd on terror's rocks, faith's beſt dependence lies.

But ah!---too thick they crowd---too cloſe they throng,
Objects of pity and affright!
Spare farther the deſcriptive ſong,
Nature ſhudders at the ſight.
Protract not, curious ears, the mournful tale,
But o'er the hapleſs group low drop compaſſion's veil.

Extracts from a complimentary epiſtle to MR. BRUCE, *the Abyſſinian traveller; by* PETER PINDAR.

"I SEE old Nile, the king of floods, ariſe,
Shake hands and welcome thee with happy eyes;
Otters and alligators in his train,
Made by thy five immortal volumes vain;
Weaſels and polecats, ſheregrigs, carrion-crows,
Seen and ſmelt only by thine eyes and noſe.

" Son of the arts and cousin of a king,
Loud as a kettle-drum whose actions ring,"
Exclaims the king of floods, " thy books I've read,
" And for thy birth place, envy brother Tweed."
O Bruce, by fame for ever to be sung;
Job's war-horse fierce, thy neck with thunder hung;
When envious death shall put thee in his stable,
Snipp'd life's fine thread, that should have been a cable;
Lo! to thy mem'ry shall the marble swell,
Mausoleum huge, and all thy actions tell!
Here, in fair sculpture, the recording stones
Shall give thee glorious, cracking lion's bones;
There, which the squeamish souls of Britain shocks,
Rich steaks devouring from the living ox;
Here, staring on thee from the realm of water,
Full many a virtuoso alligator;
There, Bruce informing queens, in naked pride,
The feel and colour of a Scotsman's hide;
Here, of the genealogy a tree,
Branching from Solomon's wise trunk to thee: [withstand
There, with a valour nought could dare
Bruce fighting an hyæna hand to hand;
Which dread hyæna (what a beast uncouth!)
Fought with a pound of candles in his mouth:
Here, temples bursting glorious on the view,
Which hist'ry, tho' a gossip, never knew:
There colosmns starting from the earth and flood, [mud."
Just like the razor-fish from sand and
" Man says, O Bruce, that thou wert hardly us'd;
That our great king at first thy book refus'd; [crew,
Indeed look'd grimly 'midst his courtier
Who, gentle courtiers! all look'd *grimly* too!
Thus when in black the lofty sky looks down,
The sympathizing sea reflects a frown;
Vale, cattle, reptile, insect, man and maid,
All mope, and sorrow in the silent shade."
" Steep is th' ascent, and narrow is the road,
Ah me! that leads to Fame's divine abode;
Yet thick (through lanes, like pilgrimaging rats,
Unaw'd by mortals, and unscar'd by cats,)
What crawling hosts attempt her sacred fane,
And dizzy, drunk-like, tumble back again."
" O form'd the trav'lers of the east to scare,
Although thy pow'rs are mighty, learn to spare:
Dog should not prey on dog, the proverb says:
Allow then brother trav'lers crumbs of praise;
Like thee, let others reap applause and rise
By daring visits to Egyptian skies:
But calmly, lo! thou canst not see them pass;
" This is a rogue or fool, and that's an ass:"
Thus on a tree, whene'er the weather's fine,
Jack Ketch, the *Spider*, weaves the fatal line;
Beneath a leaf he hides with watchful eye,
Now darts, and roping hangs the trav'ling *Fly*.
Again, most tiresome, let me say, Go, go,
Proceed and *all about it* let us know:
Led safely by thine enterprising star,
Hyænas shall not with thy journey war:
Uneat by tigers, dare the forest's gloom,
To bid the barren field of knowledge bloom:
Wave o'er new pyramids thine eagle wings;
And, hound-like, scent fresh tombs of ancient kings,
Which time had buried with the mighty dead, [shade:
And cold Oblivion swallowed in her
And, mind, 'tis *Hist'ry's* province to *surprize*;
That tales are sweetest, that sound most like lies."

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

O D E, *to Summer and Solitude.*

COME, *Summer*, offspring of the sun!
Descend from yonder turf-top'd hill!
Soft as when falling waters run
Adown the pure meandering rill;

Rich as the noon of manhood's prime,
Mild as the breath of May, in gales
Luxuriant as when infant Time
First play'd in young *Arcadian Vales*!

O place me in some moss-grown cave,
Where oozing creeping waters flow!
There may their humid windings lave
In pensive murmurs soft and slow.

These holy haunts my soul shall sooth;
The 'still small voice of heaven is here:'
That voice shall passion's throbbing smooth
And raise the heart-delighting tear.

'Tis not a bliss to be defin'd,
Too exquisite a thrill of joy,
A something mild, serene, resign'd,
Which noise and tumult would destroy.

The intellectual part of man
Holds converse with the blest above;
Bursts from this evanescent span;
And glows with warm seraphic love.

Such silent cells in days of old
Were sacred to each hallowed saint;
Where heaven its raptures did unfold,
And visions to its vot'ries paint.

These are the foretastes of a bliss,
All mental, genuine, and refin'd!
Sensations native, pure as this,
Alone the *good* and *virtuous* find!

Montgomery County, 1791.
LAURA.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

A HYMN *to the beauties of Creation.*

Air, the birks of Invermay.

THE glorious sun, with lustre bright;
And sparkling stars, a dazzling sight,
As through their azure fields they roll,
The wondrous works of God extol.

The *silver moon*, who moves serene,
And gilds with beams the midnight scene,
In silent majesty declares,
That she transcendent beauty shares!

The goodness of the great *Supreme*
Glides in the gentle pensive stream;
While rushing tides impetuous flow,
And, Heaven-controlled, their limits know.

The Lord who blooms in blushing flowers,
And twines the *amaranthine bowers*,
Blows in the balmy fragrant breeze,
And tow'rs on lofty Carmel's trees.

In awful glooms, where horror reigns,
And no mild view the eye detains,
God bears an universal sway,
As in the glare of brilliant day!

No spot so distant or obscure
But must his piercing glance endure;
No fold of deep *Egyptian* night
Can dare exclude the Lord of light!

The nice arrangement which prevails
On *Tabor's mount* * and *Sharon's dales!* †
Point out the hand which sketch'd the scene,
In varying shades of vivid green.

Earth, air, and seas, at once unite,
And gratitude in man excite,
In gen'ral harmony to join,
And praise the works of power divine.

Montgomery County, 1791.
LAURA.

SONNET, *to* EGWINA.

By a youth of seventeen.

GO verse, soft-whispering, to EGWINA say—
'Tisnot that rich complexion's lucent white,
Tinged with the rose's fragrance-blushing light,
O'er all her lovely features loves to stray;

Nor yet, that Nature, with a fond display,
Hath spread her auburn tresses on the fight,
And fram'd her lips the seal of sweet delight,
And ope'd her eyes resplendent on the day;

Tell her 'tis not, that o'er each motion Grace
Sheds a soft lustre, as she deigns to move,
Giving new beauties to the ambient pace;
That every tho't, and all my soul, is love.
But, that her mind, its radiant worth to prove,
Imprints the soul of Beauty on her face.
ELLA.

* *Most of the travellers, who have been in* Palestine, *speak of* Mount Tabor *as commanding the most beautiful prospect that the eye can take in at one view, but to christians it must be dear on other accounts.*

† *See the rose of Sharon, often mentioned in the Bible, as well as Carmel's mount.*

The CHRONICLE.

CONGRESS *of the* UNITED STATES.

HISTORICAL SKETCH *of the Proceedings of* CONGRESS *during their* THIRD SESSION, *commencing on the 6th. December,* 1790, *in the City of* PHILADELPHIA.

(Continued from page 204.*)*

HAVING given an analyſis of the Secretary's report, on the ſubject of raiſing a revenue by a duty on diſtilled ſpirits, we ſhall now proceed to give a ſketch of the proceedings of congreſs relative thereto. Doubtleſs our readers will regret, as we ſincerely do, that we can only give them an account of the debates in the houſe of repreſentatives, the doors of the ſenate being always ſhut; ſo that, notwithſtanding our boaſted privilege of being made acquainted, not only with the laws of our country, but of the reaſons on which thoſe laws are founded, we know much leſs of the motives to action in one branch of our legiſlature, than the people of Great Britain do with reſpect to theirs. On every queſtion of importance, they are generally furniſhed with a ſketch of the debates in the houſe of lords, as well as of thoſe in the houſe of commons. It is to be hoped that our ſenate will alter their conduct in this particular, and open their doors for the free admiſſion of the people, when they are engaged in the legiſlative part of their duty. This would beget confidence in the public mind, an object of no inconſiderable moment, in a government founded on the will of the people, and depending on them for its ſole ſupport. As the two houſes are liable frequently to differ in opinion, it may be worth while for thoſe gentlemen who compoſe the ſenate, to reflect on the danger to which they will be expoſed, on ſuch occaſions, of becoming unpopular. The publick will be in poſſeſſion of the reaſons which influence the conduct of one branch of the legiſlature, and if theſe are in any degree plauſible, they will not heſitate to condemn the proceedings of the other, for which they have been furniſhed with no reaſons whatever. Beſides, a people jealouſly tenacious of their liberties, may be led to entertain injurious ſuſpicions of their rulers, from no other cauſe, than the ſecrecy of their deliberations.

The Secretary's report was communicated to the houſe on the 13th. December.—On the 27th. it was taken up in a committee of the whole, and reſolutions to lay the required duties were agreed to. Theſe reſolutions were adopted by the houſe, and referred to a committee to bring in a bill accordingly. The committee reported a bill on the 30th. December; and on the ſame day a memorial of the Philadelphia college of phyſicians was preſented, in which they ſtated the baneful effects of diſtilled ſpirits, in deſtroying health and life, and in impairing the faculties of the human mind. They intreated congreſs to remedy thoſe evils, by impoſing ſuch heavy duties on all diſtilled ſpirits, as ſhould effectually reſtrain their intemperate uſe.*

This memorial we have mentioned here, becauſe we ſhall find it alluded to in the courſe of the ſubſequent debate on the ſubject before us; and not becauſe we ſuppoſe it calculated to favour the raiſing of a revenue from diſtilled ſpirits. On the contrary, it is evident that the duties, to be productive, muſt be moderate; and that to reſtrain the intemperate uſe of diſtilled ſpirits, the duties impoſed upon them muſt therefore be too heavy to anſwer the purpoſers of finance. To this unfortunate variance, between the intereſts of humanity and thoſe of finance, we muſt attribute that ſyſtem of policy, which, in ſo may nations, even at this enlightened period, contemplates only the means of raiſing a revenue, without evincing one benevolent wiſh, to leſſen the miſeries and vices to which an exceſſive uſe of ardent ſpirits has long been known to give riſe, among a large proportion of mankind, but more eſ-

* *See the Aſylum for January* 1791, *page* 32.

pecially amongſt the indigent and uninformed. At the commencement of our political career, it behoves us to lay a foundation of knowledge and of virtue, if we wiſh to perpetuate the freedom and happineſs of America. To diſcourage the exceſſive uſe of rum and whiſkey, it would be wiſe in government to endeavour to introduce ale and porter in their ſtead. The preſent moderate duties on diſtilled ſpirits will, doubtleſs, have ſome effect in this way; for thoſe duties will operate, to a certain degree, as a bounty on the brewing of malt liquors. How far this plan is capable of future improvement, we ſhall leave to the wiſdom of the national legiſlature to determine. It may not however be improper to obſerve, that government, by drawing a revenue from diſtilled ſpirits, bring the uſe of them into repute; for, to promote the conſumption of a dutied article, is to increaſe the revenue, and this moſt people are apt to conſider as patriotic conduct.

On the 5th. January, the exciſe bill (as it has been generally called) was taken into conſideration, in a committee of the whole houſe; and engaged a conſiderable ſhare of their attention till the 13th. when it was reported to the houſe, without having undergone any eſſential alteration. In the courſe of the lengthy debate, to which this ſubject gave riſe in the committee, it was contended, that there was by no means ſuch a deficiency in the funds already provided, as had been ſtated by the Secretary, or as would juſtify the impoſing of a new tax, to ſo large an amount. To ſupport this aſſertion different eſtimates were offered by different members. One eſtimate went to ſhew, that no more than 146,000 dollars, inſtead of 800,000, would be required, in addition to the duties on impoſts and tonnage, to fulfil the engagements of the public. Beſides that the produce of the duties laid laſt ſeſſion might be greater than was expected, it was as yet uncertain whether the citizens would ſubſcribe in the ſtate-debts—it was probable they would not generally ſubſcribe, as the aſſumption of thoſe debts by the general government was an unpopular meaſure, in ſeveral of the ſtates. It would therefore be proper to poſtpone the bill, till a neceſſity for additional funds ſhould really be found to exiſt.

But even admitting further proviſion to be neceſſary, ſtill this mode of taxation was highly exceptionable. It was odious, unpopular, and oppreſſive. Exciſes had ever been viewed in a deteſtable light by the people of England; nor was it at all likely that they would be more popular in America. The legiſlature of one ſtate, (North Carolina) had actually inſtructed their ſenators in congreſs to oppoſe this ſpecies of taxation; and very ſerious conſequences might enſue if it were adopted. Smuggling would be promoted by it; and the general government, from a want of power to enforce the execution of the law, might be expoſed to inſult. If the tax was collected, it muſt be in a manner extremely hoſtile to the liberties of the people—by "letting looſe a ſwarm of harpies, who, under the denomination of revenue officers, would range through the country, prying into every man's houſe and affairs; and, like a Macedonian phalanx, bear down all before them." A direct or poll tax would not excite more public odium than an exciſe.

It was ſaid further, that the propoſed tax would operate unequally. It would be ſeverely felt in the ſouthern ſtates, where the conſumption of ſpirits was great, and where there were neither orchards nor breweries to furniſh a ſubſtitute for ſpirituous liquors, which were not only neceſſary but ſalutary in that climate. The member who advanced this argument ridiculed the interference and the opinions of the college of phyſicians; and quoted Morſe's geography, to ſhow that the author, though a citizen of a northern ſtate, and a clergyman, had declared grog to be a neceſſary drink, in the ſouthern ſtates.

Various ſubſtitutes were mentioned, but rather in a deſultory manner, and unaccompanied with any eſtimate of their probable produce. Among theſe, ſalaries, penſions, lawyers, inland navigation, law proceedings, legal conveyances, and *newspapers* were ſuggeſted, as being objects of taxation leſs liable to objections than an exciſe. It was alſo propoſed, that the requiſite additional revenue ſhould be raiſed by a duty on molaſſes. A land tax was hinted at, as preferable to the propoſed duties. Many of theſe objections were urged with a conſiderable degree of warmth; and ſome of them appear to have ariſen from local attachments of members, who were apprehenſive that their particular ſtates would ſuſtain more than a juſt proportion of the burthen intended to be impoſed.

In reply to the ſeveral objections which have been enumerated, it was ſaid, that the faith of the united ſtates was pledged, to raiſe a ſufficient revenue for the pay-

ment of the interest on the funded debt. That the secretary's statements pointed out a deficiency; and there was every reason to suppose that those statements were as accurate as the nature of the subject would admit. As estimates of the sum required had been brought forward by the opposers of the bill, so different estimates were offered by its friends, which stated the deficiency in impost and tonnage duties to be still greater than that reported by the secretary. One member reckoned upon a drawback, of at least 300,000 dollars, in the produce of the impost and tonnage, for the year 1791; and adduced reasons to show, that this deficiency, though not anticipated by the secretary, was highly probable. Admitting, however, that the deficiency of the funds should be less than the revenue arising under the proposed bill, the surplus could be advantageously applied to the reduction of the public debt, an object of too much importance to be lost sight of in a season of profound peace, when a variety of circumstances concurred to afford a favourable opportunity, for relieving the people from the pressure of a part of the public debt.

It was contended, that the objections urged against the principle of the bill, arose from a prejudice against *excises*, as they had been oppressively levied in England; and were not at all applicable on the present occasion. The officers acting under this bill would not be invested with those arbitrary powers, which had justly been complained of in England, as encroaching upon the rights of the people, particularly by infringing the inestimable privilege of trial by jury. Nor did it appear that duties of the kind proposed were so unpopular as some gentlemen supposed them to be, they had long been levied without a murmur in several states in the union, which were as tenacious of their freedom as any of their sister states. It was remarkable that the federal constitution, which had been adopted by the several states, expressly secured to the national legislature the power of laying an excise. Whence was it that the delegation of this power had been approved of, at a time when every possible objection to the new system of government was urged, with the utmost vehemence? It was to be hoped that the people had too much good sense and information; not to concur in whatever measures the wisdom of their representatives should devise, for the support of public credit, and the diminution of the national debt. They must be sensible, from the checks provided in the bill, that the legislature entertained no designs inimical to the public liberty; that it was far from being their intention to enforce the execution of the laws by means of a military force. If discontents really prevailed in particular parts of the union, it was incumbent on the gentlemen who came from those districts, to use their endeavours to set matters before the people in their true light, and induce them cheerfully to comply with the laws.

With respect to the various substitutes proposed, no plan had been offered. A brief view of the several objects of revenue, which were within the reach of congress, would clearly prove that none was so proper as the one in contemplation. Taxation, it was observed, might be divided into four species—impost duties, a tax on internal negociations, direct taxes, and an excise——The impost duties had already been extended as far as was dictated by sound policy. A tax on internal negociations could not be carried to any considerable extent, without the intervention of a stamp-duty, which was much more obnoxious to the people, than an excise. Direct taxes would be still more objectionable, being of all taxes the most unequal, and, in this country, the most oppressive——Unequal, because whether apportioned on capital or income, the only two principles upon which an appurtionment could be made, a man would not contribute in proportion to his ability, which neither depended on his capital nor his income; but on that surplusage of his income, which would remain after the payment of his necessary expences. They would be oppressive in this country, because of the scarcity of a circulating medium in some of the states, and particularly in their interior parts, where money for the payment of taxes could not be obtained, by many of the citizens, without a great sacrifice of property. Besides, from the vast extent of our settlements, in proportion to our population, the expence of collection would be immense. All these considerations concurred, to point out the proposed duties on distilled spirits, as being, of all others, the least liable to inconvenience. In the course of the debate, a member,* who declared himself principled against excises in general, said that of all excises, that on ardent spirits seemed to be the least exceptionable; that, for his own part, however, he would prefer direct taxa-

* *Mr. Madison.*

tion, but this he conceived would be contrary to the fentiments of a majority of the people, and of the legiflature. If any better plan could be propofed for raifing the required revenue, he fhould be the laft that would give his fupport to the eftablifhment of an excife; but he conceived there was none, and the plan propofed was divefted of the exceptionable powers, ufually connected with the collection of this fpecies of tax. Such were the arguments for and againft the propofed duties, generally.

In difcufing that fection of the bill, which refpects the duty on fpirits diftilled from materials of American growth, the debates were protracted to a great length. The oppofers of the bill declared, that the friends of American produce and manufactures muft conlider this clauie as unfriendly to the intereits of the united ftates; and moved, therefore, that it fhould be ftruck out. Here the former arguments and eftimates, which had been brought forward to prove that the duties about to be impofed were not neceffary, were again recurred to, to fhow that at leaft this part of the duties might be omitted, conliftently with the moft ample provifion for the public exigencies. Thefe were combated with nearly the fame arguments, and with the fame calculations refpecting probable deficiencies in the impoft and tonnage duties, which had been ufed to refute former objections. With refpect to the propofition for confining the duties to foreign fpirits, it was faid that this, by deftroying the importation of fpirits, would produce a very great deficiency in the revenue. As to the objection which had been fo much inlifted upon, that the bill would operate unequally to the injury of the fouthern ftates, it was faid, there was no probability that the fouthern ftates would ever pay an over proportion of the revenue; that the impoft duties arifing on importations into thofe ftates was far below their equal proportion; and that they need not object to a duty on peach-brandy, when a fimilar duty was to be paid, in the eaftern ftates, on rum diftilled from molaffes.

Thefe arguments the oppofers of the bill denied to be fair. It ought to have been recollected, that the trade of the fouthern ftates was carried on coaftwife, by the eaftern and northern ftates; that if they did not pay an equal fhare of the impoft directly, they certainly contributed their full proportion indirectly, becaufe their conlumption was proportioned to their population. Molaffes were not the produce of the country, at leaft the fouthern ftates had nothing from which they could obtain molaffes; but if the eaftern gentlemen would conlent to excife *fifh*, an excife on *peach-brandy* would meet with no oppofition.—The queftion on ftriking out the fection was negatived.

The committee having finifhed the difcuffion of the bill, reported it to the houfe, with fome amendments, which were adopted. Sundry other amendments were propofed, and the greater part of them rejected, fome however were agreed to. We fhall briefly mention thofe which were of fuch importance as to occafion conliderable debate.

The motion which had been made in the committee, for ftriking out the fection impofing a duty on fpirits diftilled from materials the produce of the united ftates, was again made in the houfe, and negatived, as before. The clauie authorizing the executive power, to appoint fuch number of officers as might be deemed neceffary, was faid to be very objectionable. It was moved, therefore, that the number fhould be limited. To this it was replied that the number was already virtually reftricted by limiting the amount of the compenfations they were to receive. Hence, if an unneceffary number were appointed, the Prefident muft pay them out of his own pocket, or the compenfation of each muft be leffened, in proportion as the number of officers fhould be increafed.—In anfwer to this, it was obferved, that experience fhowed, that when officers were once appointed, ways and means would be found to pay them. The motion was negatived.

A tedious debate enfued on the clauie refpecting compenfations to the revenue officers. It was evident that their ferviees would be very various; and that fome would merit a greater compenfation than others. It was the opinion of fome, that it would be beft to authorize the executive to make the neceffary apportionment; but this was ftrenuoufly oppofed by thofe who were inimical to the bill. This they faid would be rendering it ftill more odious, by unduly extending the powers of the executive. It was finally agreed, that the clauie fhould be ftruck out; and that the compenfations fhould be provided for, in a feparate bill.

The next queftion of moment was on a motion for adding a clauie to prevent inlpectors, or any officers under them, from interfering, either directly or indirectly, in elections, further than giving their votes, on penalty of forfeiting their offices.—

In favor of the propoſed amendment, it was ſaid, that the duties aſſigned to the exciſe officers would give them a very extenſive knowledge of men, and enable them to exert a very dangerous influence to favour the view of ſome future Preſident, to whom they would neceſſarily be ſubſervient, in conſequence of the tenure of their offices depending on his will; and that the experience of Great Britain ſhowed the propriety of the prohibition, for ſuch had been the effects of an interference of exciſe officers in elections, in that country, that they were prohibited from ſuch interference by a law paſſed in the reign of William and Mary, though the Britiſh exciſe law was then limited to ten years, whereas ours was to be unlimited in its duration, and would conſequently be more liable to abuſe. If ſuch a proviſion had been found neceſſary in Great Britain, it would certainly not be leſs ſo in America, human nature being ſtill the ſame.—One member* ſaid that the motion did not go far enough—it ought to extend to all revenue officers. He deſcribed civil government as being at no time ſtationary, but always verging either to democracy and anarchy, or to ariſtocracy and deſpotiſm; and obſerved that caution was neceſſary in order to avoid both extremes. He thought, that in the preſent inſtance, it would be wiſe to guard againſt an undue influence of the executive power. It would be too late to apply the remedy after the evil had taken place. The Preſident would then have it in his power to prevent a reform, by procuring, through the means and influence of exciſe officers, a legiſlature that would not enact any law for that purpoſe.

In anſwer to theſe arguments it was ſaid, that to influence voters at elections would be as criminal in any other citizens, as in the officers of the revenue, and that, therefore, the prohibition, if made at all, ought to be general. The conſtitutionality of a law which abridged any deſcription of citizens of the right to ſpeak and publiſh their ſentiments, might well be queſtioned. Such a ſtigma fixed on the officers appointed to execute the law, would be the height of ill policy, by rendering the law itſelf odious; and by obliging the Preſident to appoint mean and ordinary characters, for reputable perſons would not accept of appointments, connected with ſuch a diſqualification. Such a clauſe would deprive the public of the ſervices of the moſt reſpectable citizens. A total difference was ſaid to exiſt in the circumſtances of this country and Great Britain. That country was without a conſtitution, but the united ſtates were bleſſed with one, which defined the rights both of the electors and the elected. Why then ſhould the people of America adopt thoſe maxims in legiſlation, which were the neceſſary offspring of Britiſh corruption? The queſtion was determined in the negative—ayes 21; noes 37.

The next object of diſcuſſion was a clauſe to limit the duration of the bill. In favour of this amendment it was urged, that a limitation of this nature would have a very ſalutary influence on the minds of the people, in conſequence of the ſecurity it would afford them, that the duties would not be continued after the neceſſity which had occaſioned their being laid ſhould ceaſe, or a better ſubſtitute ſhould be found. A perpetual law, not ſubject to the controul of the repreſentatives of the people, was reprobated, as unconſtitutional, and contrary to the impreſſion under which the preſent ſyſtem of national government had been adopted. It was not to be apprehended, that a limiting clauſe would have an unfavourable influence on the public credit; for a legiſlature that would refuſe to renew this act, or to eſtabliſh a ſubſtitute, would not heſitate to repeal this law. That the public creditors did not conſider the permanent appropriation of any particular proviſion for the public debt, as affording an additional ſecurity, was evident from the increaſing value of the deferred debt, for which no proviſion was made, but which was left entirely to the integrity of a future congreſs.

Againſt the propoſed amendment it was ſaid, that the bill did not make a permanent appropriation of the exciſe duties; but left it at the option of the united ſtates, to ſubſtitute other taxes or duties of equal value, if the propoſed duties ſhould prove burthenſome or inconvenient. That there would be an evident impropriety, in incorporating the amendment, and retaining, at the ſame time, the clauſe which provided for this power of ſubſtituting other funds, at the option of congreſs. The public faith was too ſacred and important to be trifled with, by making a temporary proviſion, when the honour of the government was pledged to provide funds that were

* *Mr. Gerry.*

permanent. But the amendment went farther, and would convert permanent into temporary funds; for the bill would repeal the former permanent duty on rum, and, if the amendment were adopted, fubftitute a temporary provifion in its ftead. It were to be wifhed that gentlemen who brought charges of unconftitutionality would be more explicit—The conftitution empowered the national legiflature to lay excifes, impofts, and other taxes; and there was not a fingle claufe in the propofed bill which, in any degree, violated the conftitution. As to the odioufnefs of this fpecies of tax, which had been fo frequently mentioned, it tended, without any juft reafon, to fix a ftigma on the bill It might be remarked on the fubject of taxes generally, that none ever were, or ever would be popular, in the ftrict fenfe of the word; yet, on principles of patriotifm, they were fubmitted to by the people, when there was a neceffity for them, and when it was known that the legiflature had not been wanting in their endeavours, both to difcover the leaft burthenfome fpecies of tax, and to guard, as far as poffible, againft inconvenience or oppreffion in the mode of collecting it.—The motion was loft; 39 to 19.

The oppofition to the bill was ftrenous and perfevering, in every ftage of its progrefs through the houfe of reprefentatives; and fo many embarraffments were continually thrown in its way, that the debates were fpun out to a very unufual length. Several motions were made for recommitting the bill generally; and when thefe failed, for recommitting fundry fections, for particular purpofes, but without fuccefs. Upon the final queftion---fhall the bill pafs?—there were yeas 35, nays 21——majority 14.

In the fenate, the oppofition to the principle of the bill was very inconfiderable. Some there were who wifhed that the duties on imported fpirits fhould be at leaft one third more than thofe impofed on fpirits diftilled in the united ftates. This, it was faid, would be a laudable regulation; inafmuch as it would have a ftrong tendency to encourage American diftilleries. A motion to adopt an amendment, making this difcrimination in the duties, was made and negatived. Several amendments, however, were propofed and agreed to. And a vote being taken on the bill, with the amendments, it was paffed by a large majority.---Yeas, 20; nays, 5.---It was accordingly returned to the other houfe, accompanied with the amendments.

Only one of the amendments propofed by the fenate, occafioned much difficulty. This was for inferting a fection, which fhould authorize the Prefident of the united ftates, to make fuch allowances to the officers appointed under this act, as he fhould deem reafonable and proper; provided the aggregate amount of thofe allowances fhould not exceed *five* per cent. of the whole product of the duties, arifing from fpirits diftilled in the united ftates. After a conftderable delay, and an unfuccefsful conference between a committee of the fenate and another of the houfe of reprefentatives, a kind of compromife, or accommodation took place, It was ultimately agreed that the Prefident fhould apportion the compenfations to the officers of the revenue, as he fhould think proper; provided the amount of thofe compenfations fhould not exceed *feven* per cent. on the duties arifing from fpirits diftilled within the united ftates, and provided alfo, that it fhould not exceed 45,000 dollars annually. This being agreed to, the bill was at length paffed.

Thus have we endeavoured, to give a comprehenfive account of the proceedings of congrefs, on a fubject which, from its own importance, and the manner in which it was difcuffed, has excited no fmall fhare of public attention.

A fecondary object of the fecretary's report was to recommend certain new regulations refpecting the collection of the duties on wines and teas, for the fecurity of the revenue and the accommodation of the merchants.---Twelve months therefore, are now allowed by law for the payment of duties on all imported wines, indifcriminately. And it is directed by the fame law, that the importers of teas fhall give bonds for double the amount of the duties, with conditions to pay the fame in two years; that the teas fhall be depofited at the expence and rifk of the importer, with two locks to the ftore, the key of one to be kept by the importer, and that of the other by the infpector; that on payment of the duties, or giving bond, with furety, for payment in four months if they do not exceed 100 dollars, in eight months if from 100 to 500 dollars, and in twelve months if above 500 dollars, the teas are to be delivered—provided the time does not extend beyond the two years originally allowed. For duties not paid in two years, fo much of the teas to be fold as will pay the fame.

(To be continued.)

REPORT *of the* SECRETARY *of the* TREASURY *on the* Subject *of a* MINT.

(Concluded from page 201*)*

THIS point has been the longer dwelt upon, not only becauſe there is a diverſity of opinion among ſpeculative men concerning it, and a diverſity in the practice of the moſt conſiderable commercial nations; but becauſe the acts of our own government, under the confederation, have not only admitted the expediency of defraying the expence of coinage out of the metals themſelves; but upon this idea have both made a deduction from the weight of the coins, and eſtabliſhed a difference between their regulated value and the mint price of bullion greater than would reſult from that deduction. This double operation in favour of a principle ſo queſtionable in itſelf, has made a more particular inveſtigation of it a duty.

The intention, however, of the preceding remarks, is rather to ſhew, that the expectation of commercial advantages ought not to decide in favour of a duty on coinage, and that if it ſhould be adopted, it ought not to be in the form of a deduction from the intrinſic value of the coins—than abſolutely to exclude the idea of any difference, whatever, between the value of the metals in coin and in bullion. It is not clearly diſcerned, that a ſmall difference between the mint price of bullion, and the regulated value of the coins, would be pernicious, or that it might not even be adviſable, in the firſt inſtance, by way of experiment, merely as a preventative to the melting down and exportation of the coins. This will now be ſomewhat more particularly conſidered.

The arguments for a coinage, entirely free, are, that it preſerves the intrinſic value of the metals; that it makes the expence of fabrication a general inſtead of a partial tax; and that it tends to promote the abundance of gold and ſilver, which it is alleged will flow to that place, where they find the beſt price, and from that place, where they are in any degree undervalued.

The firſt conſideration has not much weight, as an objection to a plan, which, without diminiſhing the quantity of metals, in the coins, merely allows a leſs price for them in the bullion at the national factory or mint. No rule of intrinſic value is violated, by conſidering the raw material, as worth leſs than the fabric, in proportion to the expence of fabrication. And by diveſting foreign coins of the privilege of circulating as money, they become the raw material.

The ſecond conſideration has perhaps greater weight. But it may not amount to an objection, if it be the beſt method of preventing diſorders in the coins, which it is in a particular manner the intereſt of thoſe, on whom the tax would fall, to prevent. The practice of taking gold by weight, which has of late years obtained in Great-Britain, has been found, in ſome degree, a remedy; but this is inconvenient, and may on that account fall into diſuſe. Another circumſtance has had a remedial operation. This is, the delays of the mint. It appears to be the practice there, not to make payment for the bullion, which is brought to be exchanged for coin, till it either has in fact or is pretended to have undergone the proceſs of recoining.

The neceſſity of fulfilling prior engagements, is a cauſe or pretext for poſtponing the delivery of the coin in lieu of the bullion. And this delay creates a difference in the market price of the two things. Accordingly, for ſome years paſt, an ounce of ſtandard gold, which is worth in coin £. 3. 17 10½ ſterling, has been in the market of London, in bullion, only £. 3 17 6, which is within a ſmall fraction of one half per cent. leſs. Whether this be management in the mint to accommodate the bank in the purchaſe of bullion, or to effect indirectly ſomething equivalent to a formal difference of price, or whether it be the natural courſe of the buſineſs, is open to conjecture.

It, at the ſame time, indicates, that if the mint were to make prompt payment, at about half per cent. leſs than it does at preſent, the ſtate of bullion in reſpect to coin, would be preciſely the ſame as it now is. And it would be then certain that the government would ſave expence in the coinage of gold; ſince it is not probable, that the time actually loſt in the courſe of the year in converting bullion into coin, can be an equivalent to half per cent. on the advance; and there will generally be at the

command of the treafury, a conſiderable ſum of money, waiting for ſome periodical diſburſment, which without hazard might be applied to that advance.

In what ſenſe a free coinage can be ſaid to promote the abundance of gold and ſilver, may be inferred from the inſtances which have been given, of the tendency of a contrary ſyſtem to promote their exportation. It is, however, not probable, that a very ſmall difference of value between coin and bullion can have any effect, which ought to enter into calculation. There can be no inducement of poſitive profit, to export the bullion, as long as the difference of price is exceeded by the expence of tranſportation. And the proſpect of ſmaller loſs upon the metals, than upon commodities when the difference is very minute, will be frequently over-balanced by the poſſibility of doing better with the latter, from a riſe of markets. It is at any rate certain, that it can be of no conſequence, in this view, whether the ſuperiority of coin to bullion in the market be produced, as in England, by the delay of the mint, or by a formal diſcrimination in the regulated values.

Under an impreſſion, that a ſmall difference between the value of the coin, and the mint price of bullion, is the leaſt exceptionable expedient for reſtraining the melting down, or exportation of the former, and not perceiving, that if it be a very moderate one, it can be hurtful in other reſpects——the Secretary is inclined to an experiment of $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, on each of the metals. The fact which has been mentioned, with regard to the price of gold bullion in the Engliſh market, ſeems to demonſtrate, that ſuch a difference may ſafely be made. In this caſe there muſt be immediate payment for the gold and ſilver offered to the mint. How far $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. will go towards defraying the expence of the coinage cannot be determined beforehand, with accuracy. It is preſumed, that, on an economical plan, it will ſuffice in relation to gold. But it is not expected, that the ſame rate on ſilver will be ſufficient to defray the expence attending that metal. Some additional proviſion may therefore be found neceſſary, if this limit be adopted.

It does not ſeem to be adviſeable, to make any greater difference in regard to ſilver than to gold: becauſe it is deſirable, that the proportion between the two metals, in the market, ſhould correſpond with that in the coins, which would not be the caſe, if the mint price of one was comparatively lower than that of the other; and becauſe alſo ſilver being propoſed to be rated in reſpect to gold, ſomewhat below its general commercial value, if there ſhould be a diſparity, to its advantage, in the mint prices of the two metals, it would obſtruct too much the bringing of it to be coined, and would add an inducement to export it. Nor does it appear to the Secretary ſafe to make a greater difference between the value of coin and bullion than has been mentioned. It will be better to have to increaſe it hereafter, if this ſhall be found expedient, than to have it to recede from too conſiderable a difference in conſequence of evils, which ſhall have been experienced.

It is ſometimes mentioned, as an expedient, which, conſiſtently with a free coinage, may ſerve to prevent the evils deſired to be avoided——to incorporate in the coins a greater proportion of alloy than is uſual, regulating their value, nevertheleſs, according to the quantitity of pure metal they contain. This it is ſuppoſed, by adding to the difficulty of refining them, would cauſe bullion to be preferred both for manufacture and exportation.

But ſtrong objections lie againſt this ſcheme:—An augmentation of expence;—an actual depreciation of the coin;—a danger of ſtill greater depreciation in the public opinion;—the facilitating of counterfeits:—while it is queſtionable, whether it would have the effect expected from it.

The alloy being eſteemed of no value, an increaſe of it is evidently an increaſe of expence. This, in relation to the gold coins particularly, is a matter of moment. It has been noted, that the alloy in them conſiſts partly of ſilver. If to avoid expence the addition ſhould be of copper only, this would ſpoil the appearance of the coin, and give it a baſe countenance. Its beauty would indeed be injured, though in a leſs degree, even if the uſual proportions of ſilver and copper ſhould be maintained in the increaſed quantity of alloy.

And however inconſiderable an additional expenditure of copper in the coinage of a year may be deemed; in a ſeries of years it would become of conſequence. In regulations which contemplate the laſpe and operation of ages, a very ſmall item of expence acquires importance.

The actual depreciation of the coin, by an increase of alloy, results from the very circumstance which is the motive to it—the greater difficulty of refining. In England, it is customary for those concerned in manufactures of gold to make a deduction in the price, of four pence sterling per ounce of fine gold, for every carrat which the mass containing it is below the legal standard. Taking this as a rule an inferiority of a single carrat or 1-24 part in the gold coins of the United Sates, compared with the English standard, would cause the *same quantity* of pure gold in them to be worth nearly 4-10ths. per cent. less than in the coins of Great-Britain. This circumstance would be likely, in process of time, to be felt in the market of the United States.

A still greater depreciation, in the public opinion, would be to be apprehended from the *apparent* debasement of the coin. The effects of imagination and prejudice cannot safely be disregarded in any thing that relates to money.—If the beauty of the coin be impaired, it may be found difficult to satisfy the generality of the community, that what appears worse is not really less valuable; and it is not altogether certain, that an impression of its being so, may not occasion an unnatural augmentation of prices.

Greater danger of imposition, by counterfeits, is also to be apprehended from the injury which will be done to the appearance of the coin. It is a just observation, that, "The perfection of the coins is a great safe-guard against counterfeits." And it is evident that the colour, as well as the excellence of the workmanship, is an ingredient in that perfection. The intermixture of too much alloy, particularly of copper, in the gold coins at least, must materially lessen the facility of distinguishing by the eye, the purer from the baser kind, the genuine from the counterfeit.

The inefficacy of the arrangement to the purpose intended to be answered by it, is rendered probable by different considerations. If the standard of plate in the United States should be regulated according to that of the national coins, it is to be expected that the goldsmith would prefer these to the foreign coins; because he would find them prepared to his hand, in the state which he desires; whereas he would have to *expend* an additional quantity of alloy to bring the foreign coins to that state. If the standard of plate, by law or usage, should be superior to that of the national coins, there would be a possibility of the foreign coins bearing a higher price in the market; and this would not only obstruct their being brought to the mint, but might occasion the exportation of the national coin in preference. It is not understood, that the practice of making an abatement of price for the inferiority of standard, is applicable to the English mint; and if it be not, this would also contribute to frustrating the expected effect from the increase of alloy. For in this case, a given quantity of pure metal in our standard, would be worth as much there, as in bullion of the English or any other standard.

Considering, therefore, the uncertainty of the success of the expedient, and the inconveniencies which seem incident to it, it would appear preferable to submit to those of a free coinage. It is observable, that additional expence, which is one of the principal of these, is also applicable to the proposed remedy.

It is now proper to resume and finish the answer to the first question; in order to which the three succeeding ones have necessarily been anticipated. The conclusion, to be drawn from the observations which have been made on the subject, is this—That the unit, in the coins of the United States, ought to correspond with 24 grains and $\frac{3}{4}$ of a grain of pure gold, and with 371 and $\frac{1}{4}$ of a grain of pure silver, each answering to a dollar in the money of account. The former is exactly agreeable to the present value of gold, and the latter is within a small fraction of the mean of the two last emissions of dollars; the only ones which are now found in common circulation, and of which the newest is in the greatest abundance.

The alloy in each case to be 1-12 of the total weight, which will make the unit 27 grains of standard gold, and 405 grains of standard silver.

Each of these it has been remarked will answer to a dollar in the money of account. It is conceived that nothing better can be done in relation to this, than to pursue the track marked out by the the resolution of the eighth of August, 1786. This has been approved abroad, as well as at home, and it is certain, that nothing can be more simple or convenient, than the decimal subdivisions. There is every reason to expect the method will speedily grow into general use, when it shall be seconded by corresponding coins. On this plan, the unit in the money of account will continue

to be, as eſtabliſhed by the reſolution, a dollar; and its multiples, dimes, cents, and mills; or tenths, hundredths, and thouſandths.

With regard to the number of different pieces which ſhall compoſe the coins of the United States, two things are to be conſulted—convenience of circulation, and cheapneſs of the coinage. The firſt ought not to be ſacrificed to the laſt; but as far as they can be reconciled to each other, it is deſirable to do it. Numerous and ſmall (if not too minute) ſubdiviſions aſſiſt circulation; but the multiplication of the ſmaller kinds increaſes expence; the ſame proceſs being neceſſary to a ſmall as to a large piece.

As it is eaſy to add, it will be moſt adviſable to begin with a ſmall number, till experience ſhall decide whether any other kinds are neceſſary. The following, it is conceived, will be ſufficient in the commencement.

1 Gold piece, equal in weight and value, to ten units or dollars.

1 Gold piece, equal to a tenth part of the former, and which ſhall be a unit or dollar.

1 Silver piece, which ſhall alſo be a unit or dollar.

1 Silver piece, which ſhall be in weight and value a tenth part of the ſilver unit or dollar.

1 Copper piece, which ſhall be of the value of a hundredth part of a dollar.

1 Other Copper piece, which ſhall be half the value of the former.

It is not propoſed that the lighteſt of the two gold coins ſhould be numerous, as in large payments, the larger the pieces, the ſhorter the proceſs of counting, the leſs the riſk of miſtake, and conſequently the greater the ſafety and the convenience; and in ſmall payments, it is not perceived that any inconvenience can accrue, from an entire dependence on the ſilver and copper coins. The chief inducement to the eſtabliſhment of the ſmall gold piece is to have a ſenſible object in that metal, as well as in ſilver, to expreſs the unit. Fifty thouſand at a time in circulation, may ſuffice for this purpoſe.

The tenth part of a dollar is but a ſmall piece, and with the aid of the copper coins, will probably ſuffice for all the more minute uſes of circulation. It is leſs than the leaſt of the ſilver coins, now in general currency in England.

The largeſt copper piece will nearly anſwer to the half-penny ſterling, and the ſmalleſt of courſe to the farthing. Pieces of very ſmall value are a great accommodation, and the means of a beneficial economy to the poor; by enabling them to purchaſe, in ſmall portions, and at a more reaſonable rate, the neceſſaries of which they ſtand in need. If there are only cents, the loweſt price for any portion of a vendible commodity, however inconſiderable in quantity, will be a cent; if there are half cents, it will be a half cent; and in a great number of caſes exactly the ſame things will be ſold for a half cent, which if there were none would coſt a cent. But a half cent is low enough for the *minimum* of price. Exceſſive minuteneſs would defeat its object. To enable the poorer claſſes to procure neceſſaries cheap, is to enable them with more comfort to themſelves, to labour for leſs; the advantages of which need no comment.

The denominations of the ſilver coins contained in the reſolution of the 8th. of Auguſt, 1786. are conceived to be ſignificant and proper. The dollar is recommended by its correſpondency with the preſent coin of that name, for which it is deſigned to be a ſubſtitute, which will facilitate its ready adoption as ſuch in the minds of the citizens. The dime or tenth, the cent or hundredth, the mill or thouſandth are proper, becauſe they expreſs the proportions which they are intended to deſignate. It is only to be regretted, that the meaning of theſe terms will not be familiar to thoſe who are not acquainted with the language from which they are borrowed. It were to be wiſhed, that the length and in ſome degree the clumſineſs of ſome of the correſponding terms in Engliſh, did not diſcourage from preferring them. It is uſeful to have names which ſignify the things to which they belong; and, in reſpect to objects of general uſe, in a manner intelligible to all. Perhaps it might be an improvement to let the dollar have the appellation either of dollar or unit (which laſt will be moſt ſignificant) and to ſubſtitute "tenth" for dime. In time the unit may ſucceed to the dollar. The word cent being in uſe in various tranſactions and inſtruments, will, without much difficulty, be underſtood as the hundredth; and the half cent of courſe as the two hundredth part.

The eagle, is not a very expreſſive or apt appellation for the largeſt gold piece, but nothing better occurs. The ſmalleſt of the gold coins may be called the dollar or unit, in common with the ſilver piece, with which it coincides.

The volume or size of each piece, is a matter of more consequence than its denomination. It is evident, that the more superficies or surface, the more the piece will be liable to be injured by friction; or, in other words, the faster it will wear. For this reason, it is desirable to render the thickness in proportion to breadth, as great as may consist with neatness and good appearance. Hence the form of the double guinea, or double louis d'or, is preferable to that of the half Johannes, for the large gold piece. The small one cannot well be of any other size than the Portuguese piece of eight, of the same metal.

As it is of consequence to fortify the idea of the indentity of the dollar, it may be best to let the form and size of the new one, as far as the quantity of matter (the alloy being less) permits, agree with the form and size of the present. The diameter may be the same.

The tenths may be in a mean between the Spanish 1-8 and 1-16 of a dollar.

The copper coins may be formed merely with a view to good appearance, as any difference in the wearing, that can result from difference of form, can be of little consequence in reference to that metal.

It is conceived, that the weight of the cent may be eleven penny-weights, which will about correspond with the value of the copper and the expence of coinage. This will be to conform to the rule of intrinsic value, as far as regard to the convenient size of the coins will permit; and the deduction of the expence of coinage in this case will be the more proper, as the copper coins, which have been current hitherto, have passed till lately for much more than their intrinsic value. Taking the weight as has been suggested, the size of the cent may be nearly that of the piece herewith transmitted, which weighs 10dwt. 11grs. 10m. Two thirds of the diameter of the cent will suffice for the diameter of the half cent.

It may perhaps be thought expedient, according to the general practice, to make the copper coinage an object of profit; but where this is done to any considerable extent, it is hardly possible to have effectual security against counterfeits. This consideration concurring with the soundness of the principle of preserving the intrinsic value of the money of a country, seems to outweigh the consideration of profit.

The foregoing suggestions, respecting the sizes of the several coins, are made on the supposition, that the Legislature may think fit to regulate this matter: Perhaps, however, it may be judged not unadviseable to leave it to executive discretion.

With regard to the proposed size of the cent, it is to be confessed, that it is rather greater than might be wished, if it could with propriety and safety be made less: And should the value of copper continue to decline, as it has done for some time past, it is very questionable, whether it will long remain alone a fit metal for money. This has led to a consideration of the expediency of uniting a small proportion of silver with the copper in order to be able to lessen the bulk of the inferior coins. For this, there are precedents in several parts of Europe. In France, the composition, which is called billion, has consisted of one part silver and four parts copper; according to which proportion, a cent might contain seventeen grains; defraying out of the material the expence of coinage. The conveniency of size is a recommendation of such a species of coin; but the Secretary is deterred from proposing it, by the apprehension of counterfeits.—The effect of so small a quantity of silver, in, comparitively so large a quantity of copper, could easily be imitated by a mixture of other metals of little value, and the temptation to do it would not be inconsiderable.

The devices of the coins are far from being matters of indifference, as they may be made the vehicles of useful impressions. They ought therefore to be emblematical, but without losing sight of simplicity. The fewer sharp points and angles there are, the less will be lost by wearing. The Secretary thinks it best, on this head, to confine himself to these concise and general remarks.

The last point to be discussed, respects the currency of foreign coins.

The abolition of this, in proper season, is a necessary part of the system contemplated for the national coinage. But this it will be expedient to defer till some considerable progress has been made in preparing substitutes for them. A gradation may therefore be found most convenient.

The foreign coins may be suffered to circulate, precisely upon their present footing, for one year after the mint shall have commenced its operations. The privilege may then be continued for another year to the gold coins of Portugal, England, and France, and to the silver coins of Spain. And these may still be permitted to cur-

rent, for one year more, at the rates allowed to be given for them at the mint; after the expiration of which the circulation of all foreign coins to ceafe.

The monies, which will be paid into the treafury, during the firft year, being recoined, before they are iffued anew, will afford a partial fubftitute before any interruption is given to the pre-exifting fupplies of circulation. The revenues of the fucceeding year, and the coins which will be brought to the mint, in conſequence of the diſcontinuance of their currency, will materially extend the fubſtitute, in the courſe of that year, and its extenſion will be ſo far increaſed, during the third year, by the facility of procuring the remaining ſpecies to be recoined, which will ariſe from the diminution of their current values, as probably to enable the diſpenſing wholly with the circulation of the foreign coins, after that period. The progreſs which the currency of bank bills will be likely to have made, during the ſame time, will alſo afford a ſubſtitute of another kind.

This arrangement, beſides avoiding a ſudden ſtagnation of circulation, will cauſe a conſiderable proportion of whatever loſs may be incident to the eſtabliſhment, in the firſt inſtance, to fall, as it ought to do, upon the government, and will probably tend to diſtribute the remainder of it more equally among the community.

It may nevertheleſs be adviſable, in addition to the precautions here ſuggeſted, to repoſe a diſcretionary authority in the Preſident of the United States, to continue the currency of the Spaniſh dollar, at a value correſpondiug with the quantity of fine ſilver contained in it, beyond the period above mentioned for the ceſſation of the circulation of the foreign coins. It is poſſible that an exception in favour of this particular ſpecies of coin may be found expedient: and it may tend to obviate inconveniencies, if there be a power to make the exception in a capacity to be exerted when the period ſhall arrive.

The Secretary for the department of State, in his report to the houſe of repreſentatives, on the ſubject of eſtabliſhing a uniformity in the weights, meaſures and coins of the United States, has propoſed that the weight of the dollar ſhould correſpond with the unit of weight. This was done on the ſuppoſition, that it would require but a very ſmall addition to the quantity of metal, which the dollar, independently of the object he had in view, ought to contain; in which he was guided by the reſolution of the 8th. of Auguſt, 1786—fixing the dollar at 375 grains and 64 hundredths of a grain.

Taking this as the proper ſtandard of the dollar, a ſmall alteration for the ſake of incorporating ſo ſyſtematic an idea would appear deſirable. But if the principles which have been reaſoned from, in this report, are juſt, the execution of that idea becomes more difficult. It would certainly not be adviſable to make, on that account, ſo conſiderable a change in the money unit, as would be produced by the addition of five grains of ſilver to the proper weight of the dollar, without a proportional augmentation of its relative value. And to make ſuch an augmentation would be to abandon the advantage of preſerving the identity of the dollar, or to ſpeak more accurately, of having the propoſed one received and conſidered, as a mere ſubſtitute for the preſent.

The end may however be obtained without either of thoſe inconveniencies, by increaſing the proportion of alloy in the ſilver coins. But this would deſtroy the uniformity, in that reſpect, between the gold and ſilver coins. It remains therefore to elect which of the two ſyſtematic ideas ſhall be purſued or relinquiſhed. And it may be remarked, that it will be more eaſy to convert the preſent ſilver coins into the propoſed ones, if theſe laſt have the ſame, or nearly the ſame proportion of alloy, than if they have leſs.

The organization of the mint yet remains to be conſidered.

This relates to the perſons employed, and to the ſervices which they are reſpectively to perform. It is conceived that there ought to be

A Director of the Mint, to have the ſuperintendence of the buſineſs.

An Aſſay Maſter, or Aſſayer, to receive the metals brought to the mint, aſcertain their fineneſs, and deliver them to be coined.

A Maſter Coiner, to conduct the making of the coins.

A Caſhier, to receive and pay them out.

An Auditor, to keep and adjuſt the accounts of the mint.

Clerks, as many as the directors of the mint ſhall deem neceſſary, to aſſiſt the different officers.

Workmen, as many as may be found requisite.

A Porter.

In several of the European mints, there are various other officers, but the foregoing are those only, who appear to be indispensable. Persons in the capacity of clerks will suffice instead of the others, with the advantage of greater economy.

The number of workmen is left indefinite, because at certain times, it is requisite to have more than at others. They will however never be numerous. The expence of the establishment, in an ordinary year, will probably be from fifteen to twenty thousand dollars.

The remedy for errors in the weight and alloy of the coins must necessarily form a part in the system of a mint; and the manner of applying it will require to be regulated. The following account is given of the practice in England, in this particular.

A certain number of pieces are taken promiscuously out of every fifteen pounds of gold coined at the mint, which is deposited for safe keeping in a strong box called the pix. This box, from time to time, is opened in the presence of the lord chancellor, the officers of the treasury and others; and portions are selected from the pieces of each coinage, which are melted together, and the mass assayed by a jury of the company of goldsmiths. If the imperfection and deficiency both in fineness and weight, fall short of a sixth of a carrat, or 40 grains of pure gold upon a pound of standard, the master of the mint is held excusable; because it is supposed that no workman can reasonably be answerable for greater exactness. The expediency of some similiar regulation seems to be manifest.

All which is humbly submitted,

ALEXANDER HAMILTON,

Secretary of the Treasury.

An ACT *repealing, after the last Day of June next, the* DUTIES *heretofore laid upon* DISTILLED SPIRITS *imported from abroad, and laying others in their Stead; and also upon* SPIRITS DISTILLED *within the United States, and for appropriating the same.*

BE it enacted by the SENATE and HOUSE of REPRESENTATIVES of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That after the last day of June next, the duties laid upon distilled spirits by the act, intituled, "An act making further provision for the payment of the debts of the united states," shall cease; and that upon all distilled spirits which shall be imported into the united states after that day, from any foreign port or place, there shall be paid for their use the duties following; that is to say—For every gallon of those spirits more than ten per cent below proof, according to Dicas's hydrometer, twenty cents. For every gallon of those spirits under five, and not more than ten per cent below proof, according to the same hydrometer, twenty-one cents. For every gallon of those spirits of proof, and not more than five per cent below proof, according to the same hydrometer, twenty-two cents. For every gallon of those spirits above proof but not exceeding twenty per cent, according to the same hydrometer, twenty five cents. For every gallon of those spirits more than twenty, and not more than forty per cent above proof, according to the same hydrometer, thirty cents. For every gallon of those spirits more than forty per cent above proof, according to the same hydrometer, forty cents.

And be it further enacted, That the said duties shall be collected in the same manner, by the same persons, under the same regulations, and subject to the same forfeitures and other penalties, as those heretofore laid; the act concerning which shall be deemed to be in full force for the collection of the duties herein before imposed, except as to the alterations contained in this act.

And be it further enacted, That the said duties, when the amount thereof shall not exceed fifty dollars, shall be immediately paid; but when the said amount shall exceed fifty, and shall not amount to more than five hundred dollars, may, at the option of the proprietor, importer or consignee, be either immediately paid, or se-

cured by bond, with condition for the payment thereof in four months; and if the amount of the said duties shall exceed five hundred dollars, the same may be immediately paid or secured by bond, with condition for the payment thereof in six months; which bond, in either case, at the like option of the proprietor, importer or consignee, shall either include one or more sureties to the satisfaction of the collector, or person acting as such, or shall be accompanied with a deposit in the custody of the said collector, or person acting as such, of so much of the said spirits as shall in his judgment be a sufficient security for the amount of the duties for which the said bond shall have been given, and the charges of the safe keeping and sale of the spirits so deposited; which deposit shall and may be accepted in lieu of the said surety or sureties, and shall be kept by the said collector, or person acting as such, with due and reasonable care, at the expense and risk of the party or parties on whose account the same shall have been made; and if at the expiration of the time mentioned in the bond for the payment of the duties thereby intended to be secured, the same shall not be paid, then the same deposited spirits shall be sold at public sale, and the proceeds thereof, after deducting the charges of keeping and sale, shall be applied to the payment of the whole sum of the duties for which such deposit shall have been made, rendering the overplus of the said proceeds, and the residue of the said spirits, if any there be, to the person or persons by whom such deposit shall have been made, or to his, her or their representatives.

In order to a due collection of the duties imposed by this act, *Be it further enacted*, That the united states shall be divided into fourteen districts, each consisting of one state, but subject to alterations by the President of the united states, from time to time, by adding to the smaller such portions of the greater as shall in his judgment best tend to secure and facilitate the collection of the revenue; which districts it shall be lawful for the President of the united states to subdivide into surveys of inspection, and the same to alter at his discretion. That the President be authorized to appoint, with the advice and consent of the Senate, a supervisor to each district, and as many inspectors to each survey therein as he shall judge necessary, placing the latter under the direction of the former. Provided always, That it shall and may be lawful for the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, in his discretion to appoint such and so many officers of the customs to be inspectors in any survey of inspection as he shall deem adviseable to employ in the execution of this act: Provided also, That where in the judgment of the President a supervisor can discharge the duties of that office, and also that of inspector, he may direct the same: And provided further, that if the appointment of the inspectors of surveys, or any part of them, shall not be made during the present session of Congress, the President may, and he is hereby empowered to make such appointments during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

And be it further enacted, That the supervisors, inspectors and officers to be appointed by virtue of this act, and who shall be charged to take bonds for securing the payment of the duties upon spirits distilled within the united states, and with the receipt of monies in discharge of such duties, shall keep fair and true accounts and records of their transactions in their respective offices, in such manner and form as may be directed by the proper department or officer having the superintendence of the collection of the revenue, and shall at all times submit their books, papers, and accounts to the inspection of such persons as are or may be appointed for that purpose, and shall at all times pay to the order of the officer, who is or shall be authorized to direct the payment thereof, the whole of the monies which they may respectively receive by virtue of this act, and shall also once in every three months, or oftener if they shall be required, transmit their accounts for settlement to the officer or officers whose duty it is, or shall be to make such settlement.

And be it further enacted, That all officers and persons to be appointed pursuant to this act, before they enter on the duties of their respective offices, shall take an oath or affirmation, diligently, and faithfully to execute the duties of their said offices respectively, and to use their best endeavours to prevent and detect frauds, in relation to the duties on spirits imposed by this act, which oath or affirmation may be taken before any magistrate authorized to administer oaths within the district or survey to which he belongs, and being certified under the hand and seal of the magistrate by whom the same shall have been administered, shall within three months thereafter be transmitted to the comptroller of the treasury, in default of taking which oath or

affirmation the party failing shall forfeit and pay two hundred dollars for the use of the united states, to be recovered with cost of suit.

And be it further enacted, That the supervisor of the revenue for each district, shall establish one or more offices within the same, as may be necessary; and in order that the said offices may be publicly known, there shall be painted or written, in large legible characters upon some conspicuous part outside and in front of each house, building or place in which any such office shall be kept, these words, "OFFICE OF INSPECTION;" and if any person shall paint or write, or cause to be painted or written the said words, upon any other than such house or building, he or she shall forfeit and pay for so doing, one hundred dollars.

And be it further enacted, That within forty-eight hours after any ship or vessel, having on board any distilled spirits brought in such ship or vessel from any foreign port or place, shall arrive within any port of the united states, whether the same be the first port of arrival of such ship or vessel, or not, the master or person having the command or charge thereof, shall report to one of the inspectors of the port at which she shall so arrive, the place from which she last sailed, with her name and burthen, and the quantity and kinds of the said spirits on board of her, and the casks, vessels or cases containing them, with their marks and numbers; on pain of forfeiting the sum of five hundred dollars.

And be it further enacted, That the collector or other officer, or person acting as collector, with whom entry shall have been made of any of the said spirits, pursuant to the act intituled, "An act to provide more effectually for the collection of the duties imposed by law on goods, wares and merchandises imported into the united states, and on the tonnage of ships or vessels," shall forthwith after such entry certify and transmit the same, as particularly as it shall have been made with him, to the proper officer of inspection, of the port where it shall be intended to commence the delivery of the spirits so entered, or any part thereof: for which purpose, every proprietor, importer or consignee, making such entry, shall deliver two manifests of the contents (upon one of which the said certificate shall be given) and shall at the time thereof declare the port at which the said delivery shall be so intended to be commenced, to the collector or officer with whom the same shall be made. And every permit granted by such collector, for the landing of any of the said spirits, shall previous to such landing, be produced to the said officer of inspection, who shall make a minute in some proper book, of the contents thereof, and shall endorse thereupon the word "INSPECTED," the time when, and his own name: after which he shall return it to the person by whom it shall have been produced; and then, and not otherwise, it shall be lawful to land the spirits therein specified; and if the said spirits shall be landed without such endorsement upon the permit for that purpose granted, the master or person having charge of the ship or vessel from which the same shall have been so landed, shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of five hundred dollars.

And be it further enacted, That whenever it shall be intended that any ship or vessel shall proceed with the whole or any part of the spirits which shall have been brought in such ship or vessel from any foreign port or place, from one port in the united states to another port in the said united states, whether in the same or in different districts, the master or person having the command or charge of such ship or vessel, shall previous to her departure, apply to the officer of inspection, to whom report was made, for the port from which she is about to depart, for a certificate of the quantity and particulars of such of the said spirits as shall have been certified or reported to him to have been entered as imported in such ship or vessel, and of so much thereof as shall appear to him to have been landed out of her at such port; which certificate the said officer shall forthwith grant And the master or person having the command or charge of such ship or vessel, shall within twenty-four hours after her arrival at the port to which she shall be bound, deliver the said certificate to the proper officer of inspection of such last mentioned port. And if such ship or vessel proceed from one port to another within the united states, with the whole or any part of the spirits brought in her as aforesaid, without having first obtained such certificate; or if within twenty-four hours after her arrival at such other port, the said certificate shall not be delivered to the proper officer of inspection there, the master or person having the command or charge of the said ship or vessel, shall in either case forfeit the sum of five hundred dollars; and the spirits on board of her at her said arrival, shall be forfeited, and may be seized by any officer of inspection.

And be it further enacted, That all ſpirits which ſhall be imported as aforeſaid, ſhall be landed under the inſpection of the officer or officers of inſpection for the place where the ſame ſhall be landed, and not otherwiſe, on pain of forfeiture thereof; for which purpoſe the ſaid officer or officers ſhall, at all reaſonable times, attend: *Provided* that this ſhall not be conſtrued to exclude the inſpection of the officers of the cuſtoms as now eſtabliſhed and practiſed.

And be it further enacted, That the officers of inſpection under whoſe ſurvey any of the ſaid ſpirits ſhall be landed ſhall upon landing thereof, and as ſoon as the caſks, veſſels and caſes containing the ſame ſhall be gauged or meaſured, brand or otherwiſe mark in durable characters, the ſeveral caſks, veſſels, or caſes containing the ſame, with progreſſive numbers; and alſo with the name of the ſhip or veſſel wherein the ſame was or were imported, and of the port of entry, and with the proof and quantity thereof; together with ſuch other marks, if any other ſhall be deemed needful, as the reſpective ſupervifors of the revenue may direct. And the ſaid officer ſhall keep a book, wherein he ſhall enter the name of each veſſel in which any of the ſaid ſpirits ſhall be ſo imported, and of the port of entry and of delivery, and of the maſter of ſuch veſſel, and of each importer, and of the ſeveral caſks, veſſels and caſes containing the ſame, and the marks of each: and if ſuch officer is not the chief inſpector within the ſurvey, he ſhall as ſoon as may be thereafter, make an exact tranſcript of each entry, and deliver the ſame to ſuch chief officer, who ſhall keep a like book for recording the ſaid tranſcript.

And be it further enacted, That the chief officer of inſpection within whoſe ſurvey any of the ſaid ſpirits ſhall be landed, ſhall give to the proprietor, importer or conſignee thereof, or his or her agent, a certificate to remain with him or her, of the whole quantity of the ſaid ſpirits which ſhall have been ſo landed; which certificate, beſides the ſaid quantity, ſhall ſpecify the name of ſuch proprietor, importer or conſignee, and of the veſſel from on board which the ſaid ſpirits ſhall have been landed, and of the marks of each caſk, veſſel or caſe containing the ſame. And the ſaid officer ſhall deliver to the ſaid proprietor, importer or conſignee, or to his or her agent, a like certificate for each caſk, veſſel or caſe; which ſhall accompany the ſame wherefoever it ſhall be ſent, as evidence of its being lawfully imported. And the officer granting the ſaid certificates, ſhall make regular and exact entries in the book, to be by him kept as aforeſaid, of all ſpirits for which the ſame ſhall be granted, as particularly as therein deſcribed. And the ſaid proprietor, importer or conſignee, or his or her agent, upon the ſale and delivery of any of the ſaid ſpirits, ſhall deliver to the purchaſer or purchaſers thereof, the certificate or certificates which ought to accompany the ſame; on pain of forfeiting the ſum of fifty dollars, for each caſk, veſſel or caſe with which ſuch certificate ſhall not be delivered.

And be it further enacted, That upon all ſpirits which after the ſaid laſt day of June next, ſhall be diſtilled within the united ſtates, wholly or in part from molaſſes, ſugar, or other foreign materials, there ſhall be paid for their uſe the duties following; that is to ſay—For every gallon of thoſe ſpirits more than ten per cent. below proof, according to Dicas's hydrometer, eleven cents. For every gallon of thoſe ſpirits under five and not more than ten per cent. below proof, according to the ſame hydrometer, twelve cents. For every gallon of thoſe ſpirits of proof and not more than five per cent below proof, according to the ſame hydrometer, thirteen cents. For every gallon of thoſe ſpirits above proof, and not exceeding twenty per cent. according to the ſame hydrometer, fifteen cents. For every gallon of thoſe ſpirits more than twenty and not more than forty per cent. above proof, according to the ſame hydrometer, twenty cents. For every gallon of thoſe ſpirits more than forty per cent. above proof, according to the ſame hydrometer, thirty cents.

And be it further enacted, That upon all ſpirits which after the ſaid laſt day of June next, ſhall be diſtilled within the united ſtates, from any article of the growth or produce of the united ſtates, in any city, town or village, there ſhall be paid for their uſe the duties following; that is to ſay—For every gallon of thoſe ſpirits more than ten per cent below proof, according to Dicas's hydrometer, nine cents. For every gallon of ſpirits under five and not more than ten per cent. below proof, according to the ſame hydrometer, ten cents. For every gallon of thoſe ſpirits of proof, and not more than five per cent. below proof, according to the ſame hydrometer, eleven cents. For every gallon of thoſe ſpirits above proof, but not exceeding twenty per cent. according to the ſame hydrometer, thirteen cents. For every gallon of thoſe ſpirits

more than twenty, and not more than forty per cent. above proof, according to the same hydrometer, seventeen cents. For every gallon of those spirits more than forty per cent. above proof, according to the same hydrometer, twenty-five cents.

And be it further enacted, That the said duties on spirits distilled within the united states, shall be collected under the management of the supervisors of the revenue

And be it further enacted, That the said duties on spirits distilled with the united states, shall be paid or secured previous to the removal thereof from the distilleries at which they are respectively made. And it shall be at the option of the proprietor or proprietors of each distillery, or of his, her or their agent having the superintendance thereof, either to pay the said duties previous to such removal, with an abatement at the rate of two cents for every ten gallons, or to secure the payment of the same, by giving bond quarter-yearly, with one or more sureties, to the satisfaction of the chief officer of inspection within whose survey such distillery shall be, and in such sum as the said officer shall direct, with condition for the payment of the duties upon all such of the said spirits as shall be removed from such distillery, within three months next ensuing the date of the bond, at the expiration of nine months from the said date.

And be it further enacted, That the supervisor of each district shall appoint proper officers to have the charge and survey of the distilleries within the same, assigning to each, one or more distilleries as he may think proper, who shall attend such distillery at all reasonable times, for the execution of the duties by this act enjoined on him.

And be it further enacted, That previous to the removal of the said spirits from any distillery, the officer within whose charge and survey the same may be, shall brand or otherwise mark each cask containing the same, in durable characters, and with progressive numbers, and with the name of the acting owner or other manager of such distillery, and of the place where the same was situate, and with the quantity therein, to be ascertained by actual gauging, and with the proof thereof. And the duties thereupon having been first paid, or secured, as above provided, the said officer shall grant a certificate for each cask of the said spirits, to accompany the same wheresoever it shall be sent, purporting that the duty thereon hath been paid or secured, as the case may be, and describing each cask by its marks; and shall enter in a book for that purpose to be kept, all the spirits distilled at such distillery, and removed from the same; and the marks of each cask, and the persons for whose use, and the places to which removed, and the time of each removal, and the amount of the duties on the spirits so removed. And if any of the said spirits shall be removed from any such distillery without having been branded or marked as aforesaid, or without such certificate as aforesaid, the same, together with the cask or casks containing, and the horses or cattle, with the carriages, their harness and tackling, and the vessel or boat with its tackle and apparel employed in removing them, shall be forfeited, and may be seized by any officer of inspection. And the superintendant or manager of such distillery shall also forfeit the full value of the spirits so removed, to be computed at the highest price of the like spirits in the market.

And be it further enacted, That no spirits shall be removed from any such distillery at any other times than between sun-rising and sun-setting, except by consent and in presence of the officer having the charge and survey thereof, on pain of forfeiture of such spirits, or of the value thereof at the highest price in the market, to be recovered with costs of suit from the acting owner or manager of such distillery.

And be it further enacted, That upon stills which after the last day of June next shall be employed in distilling spirits from the materials of the growth or production of the united states, in any other place than a city, town or village, there shall be paid for the use of the united states, the yearly duty of sixty cents for every gallon, English wine-measure, of the capacity or content of each and every such still, including the head thereof.

And be it further enacted, That the evidence of the employment of the said stills shall be, their being erected in stone, brick, or some other manner whereby they shall be in a condition to be worked.

And be it further enacted, That the said duties on stills shall be collected under the management of the supervisor in each district, who shall appoint and assign proper officers for the surveys of the said stills and the admeasurement thereof, and the collection of the duties thereupon; and the said duties shall be paid half-yearly, within the first fifteen days of January and July, upon demand of the proprietor or proprietors of each still, at his, her or their dwelling, by the proper officer charged with the

survey there of: And in case of refusal or neglect to pay, the amount of the duties so refused or neglected to be paid, may either be recovered with costs of suit in an action of debt in the name of the supervisor of the district, within which such refusal shall happen, for the use of the united states, or may be levied by distress and sale of goods of the person or persons refusing or neglecting to pay, rendering the overplus (if any there be after payment of the said amount and the charges of distress and sale) to the said person or persons.

And be it further enacted, That if the proprietor of any such still, finding himself or herself aggrieved by the said rates, shall enter or cause to be entered in a book to be kept for that purpose, from day to day, when such still shall be employed, the quantity of spirits distilled therefrom, and the quantity from time to time sold or otherwise disposed of, and to whom and when, and shall produce the said book to the officer of inspection within whose survey such still shall be, and shall make oath or affirmation that the same doth contain to the best of his or her knowledge and belief, true entries made at their respective dates, of all the spirits distilled within the time to which such entries shall relate, from such still, and of the disposition thereof; and shall also declare upon such oath or affirmation, the quantity of such spirits then remaining on hand, it shall be lawful in every such case for the said officer to whom the said book shall be produced, and he is hereby required to estimate the duties upon such still, according to the quantity so stated to have been actually made therefrom, at the rate of nine cents per gallon, which, and no more, shall be paid for the same: Provided, That if the said entries shall be made by any person other than the said proprietor, a like oath or affirmation shall be made by such person.

And the more effectually to prevent the evasion of the duties hereby imposed on spirits distilled within the united states,

Be it further enacted, That every person who shall be a maker or distiller of spirits from molasses, sugar, or other foreign materials, or from materials, the growth and production of the united states, shall write or paint, or cause to be written or painted upon some conspicuous part outside and in front of each house or other building or place made use of, or intended to be made use of by him or her for the distillation or keeping of spirituous liquors, and upon the door or usual entrance of each vault, cellar, or apartment within the same, in which any of the said liquors shall be at any time by him or her distilled, deposited or kept, or intended so to be, the words "Distiller of Spirits;" and every such distiller shall within three days before he or she shall begin to distil therein, make a particular entry in writing, at the nearest office of inspection, if within ten miles thereof, of every such house, building or place, and of each vault, cellar and apartment within the same, in which he or she shall intend to carry on the business of distilling, or to keep any spirits by him or her distilled. And if any such distiller shall omit to paint or write, or cause to be painted or written the words aforesaid, in manner aforesaid, upon any such house, or other building or place, or vault, cellar or apartment thereof, or shall, in case the same be situate within the said distance of ten miles of any office of inspection, omit to make entry thereof as aforesaid, such distiller shall for every such omission or neglect, forfeit one hundred dollars, and all the spirits which he or she shall keep therein, or the value thereof, to be computed at the highest price of such spirits in the market; to be recovered by action, with cost of suit, in any court proper to try the same, in the name of the supervisor of the district within which such omission or neglect shall be, for the use of the united states: Provided always, *and be it further enacted*, That the said entry to be made by persons who shall be distillers of spirits, on the first day of July next, shall be made on that day, or within three days thereafter, accompanied (except where the duties hereby imposed are charged on the still) with a true and particular account or inventory of the spirits, on that day and at the time, in every or any house, building, or place by him or her entered; and of the casks, cases and vessels containing the same, with their marks and numbers, and the quantities and qualities of the spirits therein contained, on pain of forfeiting for neglect to make such entry, or to deliver such account, the sum of one hundred dollars, and all the spirits by him or her had or kept in any such house, building or place; to be recovered as aforesaid.

And be it further enacted. That the supervisor of the revenue for the district wherein any house, building or place shall be situate, whereof entry shall be made as last aforesaid, shall as soon as may be thereafter, visit and inspect, or cause to be visited and inspected by some proper officer or officers of inspection, every such house or

other building or place within his district, and shall take or cause to be taken, an exact account of the spirits therein respectively contained, and shall mark or cause to be marked in durable characters, the several casks, cases or vessels containing the same, with progressive numbers, and also with the name of each distiller to whom the same may belong, or in whose custody the same may be, and the quantities, kinds and proofs of spirits therein contained, and these words, "Old Stock." And the inspector of each survey shall keep a book, wherein he shall enter the name of every distiller, and the particulars of such old stock in the possession of each, designating the several casks, cases and vessels containing the same, and their respective quantities, kinds, proofs and marks, and shall also give a certificate to every such distiller of the quantity and particulars of such old stock in his or her possession, and a separate certificate for each cask, case or vessel, describing the same, which certificate shall accompany the same wheresoever it shall be sent, and such distiller, his or her agent or manager, upon the sale and delivery of any of the said spirits, shall deliver to the purchaser or purchasers thereof, the certificate or certificates that ought to accompany the same, on pain of forfeiting fifty dollars for each cask, case or vessel, with which such certificate shall not be delivered.

And be it further enacted, That every importer of distilled spirits, who, on the first day of July next, shall have in his or her possession any distilled spirits, shall, within three days thereafter, make due entry thereof with the officer of inspection within whose survey the same shall then be; who shall mark the casks, vessels or cases, containing such spirits, in like manner as is herein before directed, touching such spirits as shall be in the possession of distillers on the first day of July next, and shall grant the like certificates therefor as for such spirits, which certificates shall accompany the respective casks, cases and vessels to which they shall relate, wheresoever they shall be sent, and such importer, his or her agent, upon the sale and delivery of any of the said spirits, shall deliver to the purchaser or purchasers thereof, the certificate or certificates which ought to accompany the same, on pain of forfeiting fifty dollars for each cask, case or vessel, with which such certificate shall not be delivered. And if any such importer or importers shall refuse or neglect to make such entry at the time and in the manner herein directed, all such spirits as shall not be so entered shall be forfeited, and the importer or importers in whose custody the same shall be found, shall moreover forfeit the sum equal to the full value thereof according to the highest price of such spirits in the market

And be it further enacted, That if any cask, case, or vessel, containing distilled spirits, which by the foregoing provisions of this act, ought to be marked and accompanied with a certificate, shall be found in the possession of any person unaccompanied with such marks and certificate, it shall be presumptive evidence that the same are liable to forfeiture, and it shall be lawful for any officer of inspection to seize them as forfeited; and if, upon the trial in consequence of such seizure, the owner or claimant of the spirits seized, shall not prove that the same were imported into the united states according to law, or were distilled as mentioned in the thirteenth and fourteenth sections of this act, and the duties thereupon paid, or were distilled at one of the stills mentioned in the twentieth section of this act, they shall be adjudged to be forfeited.

And be it further enacted, That it shall be lawful for the officers of inspection of each survey at all times in the day time, upon request, to enter into all and every the houses, store-houses, ware-houses, buildings and places which shall have been entered in manner aforesaid, and by tasting, gauging or otherwise, to take an account of the quantity, kinds and proofs of the said spirits therein contained, and also to take samples thereof, paying for the same the usual price.

And be it further enacted, That if any person or persons shall rub out or deface any of the marks set upon any cask, vessel, or case, pursuant to the directions of this act, such person or persons shall, for every such offence, forfeit and pay the sum of one hundred dollars.

And be it further enacted, That no cask, barrel, keg, vessel, or case, marked as "Old Stock," shall be made use of by any distiller of spirits, for putting or keeping therein any spirits other than those which were contained therein when so marked, on pain of forfeiting the sum of one hundred dollars for every cask, barrel, keg, vessel, or case, wherein any such spirits shall be so put or kept; neither shall any such distiller have or keep any distilled spirits in any such cask, barrel, keg, vessel or case, longer

than for the space of one year from the said last day of June next, on pain of forfeiting the said spirits: Provided, That nothing in this section contained shall be construed to extend to casks or vessel, capable of containing two hundred gallons or upwards, and which are not intended to be removed.

And be it further enacted, That in case any of the said spirits shall be fraudulently deposited, hid or concealed in any place whatsoever, with intent to evade the duties thereby imposed upon them, they shall be forfeited. And for the better discovery of any such spirits so fraudulently deposited, hid or concealed, it shall be lawful for any judge of any court of the united states, or either of them, or for any justice of the peace upon reasonable cause of suspicion, to be made out to the satisfaction of such judge or justice, by the oath or affirmation of any person or persons, by special warrant or warrants under their respective hands and seals, to authorize any of the officers of inspection, by day, in the presence of a constable or other officer of the peace, to enter into all and every such place or places in which any of the said spirits shall be suspected to be so fraudulently deposited, hid or concealed, and to seize and carry away any of the said spirits which shall be there found so fraudulently deposited, hid or concealed, as forfeited.

And be it further enacted, That after the last day of June next, no spirituous liquors, except gin or cordials in cases, jars, or bottles, shall be brought from any foreign port or place, in casks of less capacity than fifty gallons at the least, on pain of forfeiting of the said spirits, and of the ship or vessel in which they shall be brought: Provided always, That nothing in this act contained shall be construed to forfeit any spirits for being imported or brought into the united states, in other casks or vessels than as aforesaid, or the ship or vessel in which they shall be brought, if such spirits shall be for the use of the seamen on board such ship or vessel, and shall not exceed the quantity of four gallons for each seaman.

And be it further enacted, That in every case in which any of the said spirits shall be forfeited by virtue of this act, the casks, vessels, and cases containing the same shall also be forfeited.

And be it further enacted, That every distiller of spirits, on which the duty is hereby charged by the gallon, shall keep or cause to be kept, an exact account of the said spirits, which he or she shall sell, send out or distil, distinguishing their several kinds and proofs; and shall every day make a just and true entry in a book, to be kept for that purpose, of the quantities and particulars of the said spirits by him or her sold, sent out or distilled on the preceding day; specifying the marks of the several casks in which they shall be sold or sent out, and the person to whom and for whose use they shall be sold or sent out: which said books shall be prepared for the making such entries, and shall be delivered upon demand, to the said distillers, by the supervisors of the revenue of the several districts, or by such person or persons as they shall respectfully for that purpose appoint, and shall be severally returned or delivered at the end of each year, or when the same shall be respectively filled up (which shall first happen) to the proper officers of inspection; and the truth of the entries made therein shall be verified, upon the oath or affirmation of the person by whom those entries shall have been made, and as often as the said books shall be furnished upon like demand by the proper officers of inspection, to the said distillers respectively. And the said books shall from time to time while in the possession of the said distillers, lie open for the inspection of, and upon request shall be shewn to the proper officers of inspection under whose survey the said distillers shall respectively be, who may take such minutes, memorandums, or transcripts thereof, as they may think fit. And if any such distiller shall neglect or refuse to keep such book or books, or to make such entries therein, or to shew the same upon request, to the proper officer of inspection, or not return the same according to the directions of this act, he or she shall forfeit for every such refusal or neglect, the sum of one hundred dollars.

And be it further enacted, That the penalties by this act imposed on distillers for neglecting to make report to the inspectors, of their intentions of distilling spirits, or for neglecting to mark the houses, apartments or vessels to be employed, or for neglecting to enter in books the quantity of spirits distilled, shall not extend to any person who shall employ one still only, and that of a capacity not exceeding fifty gallons including the still-head.

And be it further enacted, That the several kinds of proof herein before specified, shall, in marking the casks, vessels and cases containing any distilled spirits, be distin-

guished, corresponding with the order in which they are mentioned, by the words "FIRST PROOF"—"SECOND PROOF"—"THIRD PROOF"—"FOURTH PROOF"—"FIFTH PROOF"—"SIXTH PROOF". And that it be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury, to provide and furnish to the officers of inspection and of the customs, proper instruments for ascertaining the said several proofs.

And be it further enacted, That in any prosecution or action which may be brought against any supervisor or other officer of inspection, for any seizure by him made, it shall be necessary for such supervisor or officer to justify himself by making it appear that there was probable cause for making said seizure; upon which, and not otherwise, a verdict shall pass in his favour. And in any such action or prosecution, or in any action or prosecution which may be brought against such supervisor or other officer, for irregular or improper conduct in the execution of his duty, the trial shall be by jury. And in any action for a seizure, in which a verdict shall pass for such officer, the jury shall nevertheless assess reasonable damages for any prejudice or waste (according to the true amount in value thereof) which shall be shewn by good proof to have happened to the spirits seized, in consequence of such seizure; and also for the detention of the same, at the rate of six per cent. per annum, on the true value of the said spirits at the time of such seizure, from that time to the time of restoration thereof; which shall be paid out of the treasury of the united states: Provided, That no damages shall be assessed when the seizure was made for want of the proper certificate or certificates, or by reason of a refusal to shew any officer of inspection, upon his request, the spirits in any entered house, building or place: And provided also, That if it shall appear from the verdict of the jury, that any such prejudice, or waste was sustained by the negligence of the officer, he shall be responsible therefor to the united states.

And be it further enacted, That if any supervisor or other officer of inspection in any criminal prosecution against him, shall be convicted of oppression or extortion in the execution of his office, he shall be fined not exceeding five hundred dollars, or imprisoned not exceeding six months, or both, at the discretion of the court; and shall also forfeit his office.

And be it further enacted, That no fee shall be taken for any certificate to be issued or granted pursuant to this act.

And be it further enacted, That if any of the said supervisors or other officers of inspection, shall neglect to perform any of the duties hereby enjoined upon them respectively, according to the true intent and meaning of this act, whereby any person or persons shall be injured or suffer damage, such person or persons shall and may have an action founded upon this act, against such supervisors or other officers, and shall recover full damages for the same, together with costs of suit.

And be it further enacted, That any action or suit to be brought against any person or persons, for any thing by him or them done in pursuance of this act, shall be commenced within three months next after the matter or thing done, and unless brought in a court of the united states, shall be laid in the county in which the cause of action shall have arisen; and the defendant or defendants in any such action or suit, may plead the general issue, and on the trial thereof give this act and the special matter, in evidence; and if a verdict shall pass for the defendant or defendants, or the plaintiff or plaintiffs become nonsuited, or discontinue his, her, or their action or prosecution, or judgment shall be given against such plaintiff or plaintiffs, upon demurrer or otherwise, then such defendant or defendants shall have costs awarded to him, her or them, against such plaintiff or plaintiffs.

And in order that persons who may have incurred any of the penalties of this act, without wilful negligence or intention of fraud, may be relieved from such penalties.

Be it further enacted, That it shall be lawful for the judge of the district within which such penalty or forfeiture shall have been incurred, at any time within one year after the last day of June next, upon petition of the party who shall have incurred the same, to enquire in a summary way into the circumstances of the case, first causing reasonable notice to be given to the person or persons claiming such penalty or forfeiture, and to the attorney of such district; to the end that each may have an opportunity of shewing cause against the mitigation or remission thereof; and shall cause the facts which shall appear upon such enquiry, to be stated and annexed to the petition, and direct their transmission to the Secretary of the treasury of the united

ſtates, who ſhall thereupon have power to mitigate or remit ſuch penalty or forfeiture, if it ſhall appear to him that ſuch penalty or forfeiture was incurred without wilful negligence, or any deſign or intention of fraud, and to cauſe any ſpirits which may have been ſeized to be reſtored to the proprietor or proprietors, upon ſuch terms and conditions as ſhall appear to him reaſonable.

And be it further enacted, That the one half of all penalties and forfeitures incurred by virtue of this act, except as above provided, ſhall be for the benefit of the perſon or perſons who ſhall make a ſeizure, or who ſhall firſt diſcover the matter or thing whereby the ſame ſhall have been incurred; and the other half to the uſe of the united ſtates. And ſuch penalty and forfeiture ſhall be recoverable with coſts of ſuit, by action of debt, in the name of the perſon or perſons intitled thereto, or by information, in the name of the united ſtates of America; and it ſhall be the duty of the attorney of the diſtrict wherein any ſuch penalty or forfeiture may have been incurred, upon application to him, to inſtitute and bring ſuch information accordingly Provided always, That no officer of inſpection other than chief officer, or officers of a ſurvey ſhall be entitled to the benefit of any forfeiture, unleſs notice of the ſeizure by him made ſhall be by him given within forty-eight hours next after ſuch ſeizure, to the ſaid chief officer or officers; but in ſuch caſe the united ſtates ſhall have the entire benefit of ſuch forfeiture.

And be it further enacted, That if any perſon or perſons ſhall counterfeit or forge, or cauſe to be counterfeited or forged any of the certificates herein before directed to be given, or ſhall knowingly or willingly accept or receive any falſe or untrue certificate with any of the ſaid ſpirits, or ſhall fraudulently alter or eraſe any ſuch certificate after the ſame ſhall be given, or knowingly or willingly publiſh or make uſe of ſuch certificate ſo counterfeited, forged, falſe, untrue, altered, or eraſed, every perſon ſo offending ſhall, for each and every offence, forfeit and pay the ſum of five hundred dollars.

And be it further enacted, That any perſon or perſons that ſhall be convicted of wilfully taking a falſe oath or affirmation, in any of the caſes in which oaths or affirmation, are required to be taken by virtue of this act, ſhall be liable to the pains and penalties to which perſons are liable for wilful and corrupt perjury.

And be it further enacted, That if any perſon or perſons ſhall give, or offer to give any bribe, recompenſe, or reward whatſoever, to any ſupervifor or other officer of inſpection of the revenue, in order to corrupt, perſuade, or prevail upon ſuch officer, either to do any act or acts contrary to his duty, in the execution of this act, or to neglect or omit to do any act or thing which he ought to do in the execution of this act, or to connive at, or to conceal any fraud or frauds relating to the duties hereby impoſed on any of the ſaid ſpirits, or not to diſcover the ſame, every ſuch perſon or perſons, ſhall for ſuch offence, whether the ſame offer or propoſal be accepted or not, forfeit and pay a ſum not exceeding five hundred dollars.

And be it further enacted, That if any perſon or perſon or perſons ſhall forcibly obſtruct or hinder any ſupervifor or other officer of inſpection, in the execution of this act or of any of the powers or authorities hereby veſted in him, or ſhall forcibly reſcue or cauſe to be reſcued, any of the ſaid ſpirits after the ſame ſhall have been ſeized by any ſuch ſupervifor or other officer, or ſhall attempt or endeavour ſo to do, all and every perſon and perſons ſo offending, ſhall for every ſuch offence, for which no other penalty is particularly provided by this act, forfeit and pay a ſum not exceeding two hundred dollars.

And be it further enacted, That if any ſuch ſupervifor or other officer, ſhall enter into any colluſion with any perſon or perſons for violating or evading any of the proviſions of this act, or the duties hereby impoſed, or ſhall fraudulently concur in the delivery of any of the ſaid ſpirits, out of any houſe building or place, wherein the ſame are depoſited, without payment or ſecurity for the payment of the duties thereupon, or ſhall falſely or fraudulently mark any caſk, caſe or veſſel, contrary to any of the ſaid proviſions, or ſhall embezzle the public money, or otherwiſe be guilty of fraud in his office, ſuch ſupervifor or other officer ſhall for every ſuch offence forfeit the ſum of one thouſand dollars, and upon conviction of any of the ſaid offences, ſhall forfeit his office, and ſhalll be diſqualified for hoding any other office under the united ſtates.

And be it further enacted, That in every caſe in which an oath or affirmation is required by virtue of this act, it ſhall be lawful for the ſupervifors of the revenue, or any of them, or their lawful deputy, or the lawful deputy of one of them, where not more than one in a diſtrict, to adminiſter and take ſuch oath or affirmation. And

that wherever there are more than one superviſor for one diſtrict, a majority of them may execute all and any of the powers and authorities hereby veſted in the ſupervi-ſors of the revenue: Provided, That this ſhall not be conſtrued to make a majority neceſſary in any caſe in which, according to the nature of the appointment or ſervice, and the true intent of this act, the authority is or ought to be ſeveral.

And for the encouragement of the export-trade of the united ſtates:

Be it be further enacted, That if any of the ſaid ſpirits (whereupon any of the duties impoſed by this act ſhall have been paid or ſecured to be paid) ſhall after the laſt day of June next, be exported from the united ſtates to any foreign port or place, there ſhall be an allowance to the exporter or exporters thereof, by way of drawback, equal to the duties thereupon, according to the rates in each caſe by this act impoſed, deducting therefrom half a cent per gallon, and adding to the allowance upon ſpirits diſtilled within the united ſtates, from molaſſes, which ſhall be ſo exported, three cents per gallon, as an equivalent for the duty laid upon molaſſes by the ſaid act making further proviſion for the payment of the debts of the united ſtates: Provided always, That the ſaid allowance ſhall not be made, unleſs the ſaid exporter or exporters ſhall obſerve the regulations herein after preſcribed: And provided further, That nothing herein contained ſhall be conſtrued to alter the proviſions in the ſaid former act, concerning drawbacks or allowances, in nature thereof, upon ſpirits imported prior to the firſt day of July next.

And be it further enacted, That in order to intitle the ſaid exporter or exporters to the benefit of the ſaid allowances, he, ſhe or they, ſhall previous to putting or lading any of the ſaid ſpirits on board of any ſhip or veſſel for exportation, give twenty-four hours notice at the leaſt, to the proper officer of inſpection, of the port from which the ſaid ſpirits ſhall be intended to be exported, of his, her or their intention to export the ſame, and of the number of caſks, veſſels and caſes, or either of them, containing the ſaid ſpirits ſo intended to be exported, and of the reſpective marks thereof, and of the place or places where the ſaid ſpirits ſhall be then depoſited, and of the place to which, and ſhip or veſſel in which, they ſhall be ſo intended to be exported. Whereupon it ſhall be the duty of the ſaid officer to inſpect, by himſelf or deputy, the caſks, veſ-ſels and caſes ſo noticed for exportation, and the quantities, kinds and proofs of the ſpirits therein, together with the certificates which ought to accompany the ſame according to the directions of this act, which ſhall be produced to him for that purpoſe; and if he ſhall find that the ſaid caſks, veſſels and caſes have the proper marks according to the directions of this act, and that the ſpirits therein correſpond with the ſaid certificates, he ſhall thereupon brand each caſk, veſſel or caſe with the word "Exportation;" and the ſaid ſpirits ſhall, after ſuch inſpection, be laded on board the ſame ſhip or veſſel, of which notice ſhall have been given, and in preſence of the ſame officer who ſhall have examined the ſame, and whoſe duty it ſhall be to attend for that purpoſe. And after the ſaid ſpirits ſhall be laden on board ſuch ſhip or veſſel, the certificates aforeſaid ſhall be delivered to the ſaid officer, who ſhall cer-tify to the collector of the ſaid diſtrict, the amount and particulars of the ſpirits ſo ex-ported, and ſhall alſo deliver the ſaid certificates which ſhall have been by him re-ceived, to the ſaid collector, which ſhall be a voucher to him, for payment of the ſaid allowance.

Provided nevertheleſs, *and be it further enacted*, That the ſaid allowance ſhall not be made, unleſs the ſaid exporter or exporters ſhall make oath or affirmation, that the ſaid ſpirits ſo noticed for exportation, and laden on board ſuch ſhip or veſſel, are true-ly intended to be exported to the place whereof notice ſhall have been given, and are not intended to be relanded within the united ſtates; and that he or ſhe doth verily be-lieve that the duties thereupon charged by this act, have been duly paid, or ſecured to be paid; and ſhall alſo give bond to the collector, with two ſureties, one of whom ſhall be the maſter, or other perſon having the command or charge of the ſhip or veſſel in which the ſaid ſpirits ſhall be intended to be exported; the other, ſuch ſuffi-cient perſon as ſhall be approved by the ſaid collector, in the full value in the judg-ment of the ſaid collector, of the ſaid ſpirits ſo intended to be exported, with condition that the ſaid ſpirits (the dangers of the ſeas and enemies excepted) ſhall be really and truely exported to, and landed in ſome port or place without the limits of the united ſtates, and that the ſaid ſpirits ſhall not be unſhipped from on board of the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, whereupon the ſame ſhall have been laden for exportation, within the ſaid

limits, or any ports or harbours of the united ſtates, or relanded in any other part of the ſame, ſhipwreck or other unavoidable accident excepted.

Provided alſo, *and be it further enacted*, That the ſaid allowance ſhall not be paid until ſix months after the ſaid ſpirits ſhall have been ſo exported: And provided alſo, That whenever the owner of any ſhip or veſſel, on board of which any ſuch ſpirits are laden for exportation, ſhall make known to the collector, previous to the departure of ſuch ſhip or veſſel from the port where ſuch ſpirits are laden, that ſuch ſhip or veſſel is not going to proceed the voyage intended, or the voyage is altered: it ſhall be lawful for the collector to grant a permit for the relanding the ſame.

And be it further enacted, That if any of the ſaid ſpirits, after the ſame ſhall have been ſhipped for exportation, ſhall be unſhipped for any purpoſe whatever either within the limits of any part of the united ſtates, or within four leagues of the coaſt thereof, or ſhall be relanded within the united ſtates, from on board the ſhip or veſſel wherein the ſame ſhall have been laden for exportation, unleſs the voyage ſhall not be proceeded on, or ſhall be altered as aforeſaid, or unleſs in caſe of neceſſity or diſtreſs to ſave the ſhip and goods from periſhing, which ſhall immediately be made known to the principal officer of the cuſtoms, reſiding at the port neareſt to which ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall be at the time ſuch neceſſity or diſtreſs ſhall ariſe, then not only the ſpirits ſo unſhipped, together with the caſks, veſſels and caſes containing the ſame, but alſo the ſhip or veſſel in or on board which the ſame ſhall have been ſo ſhipped or laden, together with her guns, furniture, ammunition, tackle and apparel; and alſo the ſhip, veſſel or boat, into which the ſaid ſpirits ſhall be unſhipped or put, after the unſhipping thereof, together with her guns, furniture, ammunition, tackle and apparel, ſhall be forfeited, and may be ſeized by any officer of the cuſtoms, or of inſpection.

And be it further enacted, That the ſaid allowance ſhall not be made when the ſaid ſpirits ſhall be exported in any other than a ſhip or veſſel of the burthen of thirty tons and upwards, to be aſcertained to the ſatisfaction of the collector of the diſtrict from which the ſame ſhall be intended to be exported.

And be it further enacted, That the bonds to be given as aforeſaid, ſhall and may be diſcharged by producing within one year from the reſpective dates thereof (if the ſame be ſhipped to any part of Europe or America, and within two years if ſhipped to any part of Aſia or Africa, and if the delivery of the ſpirits in reſpect to which the ſame ſhall have been given, be at any place where a conſul, or other agent of the united ſtates reſides) a certificate of ſuch conſul or agent, or if there be no ſuch conſul or agent then a certificate of any two known and reputable American merahants reſiding at the ſaid place, and if there be not two ſuch merchants reſiding at the ſaid place, then a certificate of any other two reputable merchants, teſtifying the delivery of the ſaid ſpirits at the ſaid place. Which certificate ſhall in ſuch caſe be confirmed by the oath or affirmation of the maſter and mate, or other like officer of the veſſel in which the ſaid ſpirits ſhall have been exported; and when ſuch certificate ſhall be from any other than a conſul or agent, or merchants of the united ſtates, it ſhall be a part of the ſaid oath or affirmation, that there were not, upon diligent enquiry, to be found two merchants of the united ſtates at the ſaid place: Provided always, That in the caſe of death, the oath or affirmation of the party dying, ſhall not be deemed neceſſary: And, provided further, that the ſaid oath or affirmation, taken before the chief civil magiſtrate of the place of the ſaid delivery, and certified under his hand and ſeal, ſhall be of the ſame validity as if taken before a perſon qualified to adminiſter oaths within the united ſtates; or ſuch bonds ſhall and may be diſcharged upon proof that the ſpirits ſo exported, were taken by enemies, or periſhed in the ſea, or deſtroyed by fire; the examination and proof of the ſame being left to the judgment of the collector of the cuſtoms, naval officer, and chief officer of inſpection, or any two of them, of the place from which ſuch ſpirits ſhall have been exported.——And in caſes where the certificates herein directed cannot be obtained, the exporter or exporters of ſuch ſpirits, ſhall nevertheleſs be permitted to offer ſuch other proof as to the delivery of the ſaid ſpirits, without the limits of the united ſtates, as he or they may have; and if the ſame ſhall be deemed ſufficient by the ſaid collector, he ſhall allow the ſame, except when the drawback to be allowed ſhall amount to one hundred dollars or upwards; in all which caſes the proofs aforeſaid ſhall be referred to the comptroller of the treaſury, whoſe deciſion thereon ſhall be final.

And be it further enacted, That it shall and may be lawful for the President of the united States from time to time to make such allowances to the said supervisors, inspectors, and to the deputies and officers by them to be appointed and employed, for their respective services in the execution of this act, to be paid out of the product of the said duties, as he shall deem reasonable and proper: Provided always, That the aggregate amount of the allowances to all the said supervisors, inspectors, and other officers, shall not exceed seven per cent. of the whole product of the duties arising from the spirits distilled within the united States: And provided also, That such allowance shall not exceed the annual amount of forty-five thousand dollars, until the same shall be further ascertained by law.

And be it further enacted, That this act shall commence and take effect as to all matters therein contained, in respect to which no special commencement is hereby provided (except as to the appointment of officers and regulation of the districts and surveys) from and immediately after the last day of June next

And be it further enacted, That the nett product of the duties herein before specified, which shall be raised, levied and collected, by virtue of this act, or so much thereof as may be necessary, shall be, and is hereby pledged and appropriated for the payment of the interest of the several and respective loans which had been made in foreign countries, prior to the fourth day of August last; and also upon all and every loan and loans which have been and shall be made, and obtained, pursuant to the act, intitled, "An act making provision for the debt of the united States;" and according to the true intent and meaning of the said act, and of the several provisions and engagements therein contained and expressed, and subject to the like priorities and reservations as are made and contained in and by the said act, in respect to the monies therein appropriated, and subject to this farther reservation, that is to say—of the nett amount or product during the present year, of the duties laid by this act, in addition to those heretofore laid upon spirits imported into the united States, from any foreign port or place, and of the duties laid by this act on spirits distilled within the united States, and on stills; to be disposed of towards such purposes for which appropriations shall be made during the present session. And to the end that the said monies may be inviolably applied in conformity to the appropriation hereby made, and may never be diverted to any other purpose, until the final redemption or reimbursement of the loans or sums for the payment of the interest whereof they are appropriated, an account shall be kept of the receipts and disposition thereof, separate and distinct from the product of any other duties, impost, excise, and taxes whatsoever, except those heretofore laid and appropriated to the same purposes.

And be it further enacted, That the unappropriated surplus, if any there shall be, of the revenue arising under this act, at the end of this and every succeeding year, shall be applied to the reduction of the public debt, in like manner as is directed by the act, intitled, "An act making provision for the reduction of the public debt;" and provided by the act, intitled, "An act making provision for the debt of the united States;" unless the said surplus, or any part thereof, shall be required for the public exigencies of the united States, and shall, by special acts of Congress, be appropriated thereto.

And be it further enacted, That the several duties imposed by this act, shall continue to be collected and paid, until the debts and purposes for which they are pledged and appropriated, shall be fully discharged and satisfied, and no longer. Provided always, That nothing herein contained, shall be construed to prevent the legislature of the united States from substituting other duties or taxes of equal value to all or any of the said duties and imposts.

FREDERICK AUGUSTUS MUHLENBERG,
Speaker of the House of Representatives.

JOHN ADAMS, *Vice-President of the united States, and President of the Senate.*

Approved, March the third, 1791.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *President of the united States.*

PHILADELPHIA.

Extract from the Minutes of the Houſe of Repreſentatives of the Commonwealth of Pennſylvania.

FRIDAY, April 8, 1791. A M.

The Addreſs to the National Aſſembly of France, read April 6th inſtant, was read the ſecond time, and adopted unanimouſly, viz.

SIR,

THE Repreſentatives of the People of Pennſylvania have unanimouſly concurred in the deſire of expreſſing to the National Aſſembly of France, their ſympathetic feelings on the ſubject of their virtuous exertions in the cauſe of freedom:—They ſincerely offer their congratulations on the ſucceſs that has attended them, which they have viewed, in its progreſs, with the moſt pleaſing and anxious ſenſations.

A nation which has been actuated by ſuch magnanimous policy, which, with a noble enthuſiaſm ſo generouſly interpoſed its power, ſo profuſely poured forth its treaſures, and mingled its blood with ours, in defence of the liberties of America, is entitled to a grateful return of our regard, and to the warmeſt wiſhes that ſenſibility or attachment can expreſs.

It was under the operation of thoſe feelings, that we have always lamented that a brave and gallant people, who have become the voluntary champions of our freedom, ſhould not themſelves be free;—that after having aſſiſted in erecting for us a temple of liberty, they ſhould return to the houſe of bondage. Fortunately, the ſcene has changed, and your preſent ſituation awakens the moſt amiable ſympathies of the human heart.

We now view, with grateful exultation, your glorious triumph of reaſon over prejudice—of liberty and law over ſlavery and deſpotic will. You have nobly broken the fetters that bound you to your former government, and have, in the view of aſtoniſhed Europe, undertaken a revolution, founded on that pure and elementary principle, that the people are the ſource of power, that in them it is naturally inherent, and from them can alone be derived.

The truth of this hallowed maxim, the pride and boaſt of our American conſtitutions, could not remain undiſcovered and unattended to, amidſt the blaze of patriotiſm and philoſophy which has long enlightened France.

We rejoice that your government, though differently organized, is eſtabliſhed on ſuch congenial principles, as to cement by ſtronger, becauſe more kindred ties, the friendſhip that now connects us.

As an evidence of this diſpoſition, we can aſſure you, that the ſuffrages and ſentiments of our citizens are all united in the warmeſt predictions for your cauſe and your country. We anticipate the happineſs and glory that will await you, when thoſe various reſources by which you are ſurrounded, and which nature has ſo profuſely laviſhed on you, ſhall be put into energetic motion, by the operation of a free government.

We fondly hope that no untoward or inauſpicious circumſtance may intervene to interrupt your glorious career, until you have effectually reſtored to the bleſſings of equal liberty, civil and religious, ſo many millions of our fellow men; until you have implanted in the minds of the people a generous and paſſionate enthuſiaſm for their country, inſtead of a confined, though romantic, attachment to the perſon of a king.

But whilſt viewing with awe and admiration the principles you have eſtabliſhed, and which we ardently wiſh may defy the efforts of time, tyranny, and treachery to overthrow, we cannot but rejoice that you have been expoſed in your progreſs to few of thoſe convulſive ſtruggles, that ſo ſtrongly marked the various eras of the American revolution.

If our ſolicitude for your ſucceſs could be encreaſed from the operation of extraneous motives, it would receive conſiderable force from the animating and philanthropic reflection, that other nations of Europe from the influence of your example, will learn to value and vindicate the rights of man;—and that ſuch political inſtitutions will be more generally eſtabliſhed, as by experience are found to contain principles favourable to the happineſs of our ſpecies, and ſuited to the dignity of our nature.

To the PRESIDENT *of the* NATIONAL ASSEMBLY *of* FRANCE.

Extract of a letter from Paris, January 14.

CONTRARY to the expectations of our oppoſition-biſhops, a majority of the cures of Paris have taken the civic oath, on Sunday laſt, the 9th inſtant. The churches were never more crowded: The exhibitions in them have varied according to the different conduct of the ſeveral miniſters: It was eaſy to diſcover by the behaviour of the flock what the ſhepherd had been doing. The cures who have ſhewn ſubmiſſion to the decrees of the National Aſſembly, directed the ceremony to begin by hymns of joy and feſtivity, and patriotic ſermons adapted to the occaſion, previous to their taking the oath; while thoſe in the oppoſition pronounced from their pulpits diſcourſes, which, at any other time, would have made the people oppoſe the decree of the Aſſembly; but which at the preſent juncture have only raiſed the mob againſt themſelves. Had it not been for the zeal and firmneſs ſhewn by the national guard, the laſt would have paid with their lives for the imprudence of their conduct. The cure of St. Sulpice was near falling a ſacrifice to the fury of the people, while the cure of St Euſtache, the king's confeſſor, was carried back to his home in triumph, in the midſt of popular ſhouts. It ſhould be obſerved that theſe pariſhes are the moſt wealthy and populous in the city. Next Sunday is the limit preſcribed to thoſe of the clergy who wiſh to take the civic oath: All our troops will be under arms. It is hoped that moſt of the cures will by that time have made up their minds, and have taken the reſolution of following the examples of the friends of peace. After this day all ſuch as ſhall not have taken the oath, are *ipſo facto* to be deprived of their benefices, according to the meaning of the decree. *Leyden Gazette.*

Extract of a letter from Amſterdam, to a gentleman in this city, dated, Jan. 16, 1791.

The admiralty of this country are endeavouring to collect information with reſpect to our ſhip timber, and particularly the live oak. They have applied to Mr.——— reſpecting it. Unfortunately, the carpenters of the united ſtates are in the habit of employing timber in an unſeaſoned ſtate. This has already thrown our ſhipping into diſcredit, which will prevent that art's becoming an important addition to our commerce, unleſs the evil can be remedied by ſome means or other. Some houſes here had ordered ſhips to be built in America by way of experiment. They have turned out ſo badly, notwithſtanding the cheapneſs of the firſt coſt, that they have abandoned the proſecution of their object—and this has induced others to follow their example, without the expence of an experiment.

Samples of the ſugar of the maple tree refined at New-York, have been ſent to ſeveral houſes here—one of them has conceived ſuch hopes from them, that they intend to ſend refiners there, and endeavour to introduce this article into the commerce between this place and the united ſtates. I ſuppoſe, however, that it will be ſome time before enough is made for our own conſumption, and that until then it cannot become an article of exportation.

Extract of a letter from Amſterdam, dated January 31, 1791.

In France, every thing goes on very well. The aſſignats have riſen to 15 and 16 per cent. above par. They have been enabled to commence the diſcharge of their debts by the ſale of the lands of the clergy, which are, on an average, ſold at one third higher than the appraiſal.

Extract of a letter from New-York, April 23.

A ſociety has been lately inſtituted here, for the promoting of agriculture, the arts and manufactures: It bids fair to be uſeful, and if the diſtrict ſecretaries are public ſpirited and active, it will be the means of advancing the general intereſt, and circulating important information. Exertions have been made to ſtimulate the legiſlature to imitate our brethren of Pennſylvania, in improving roads and inland navigation.

Philad. April 13. At a meeting of the aldermen on monday laſt, for the purpoſe of chooſing a mayor for the enſuing year, Samuel Miles, Eſq. was unanimouſly re-elected, but declined ſerving;—whereupon John Barclay, Eſq. was elected.

The bill pending before the Legiſlature of this ſtate, making appropriations for erecting *Federal Buildings* in this city, is poſtponed by the Senate, till the next ſeſſion.

April, 23. Tuesday evening last, the Hon. Judge Wilson finished a course of 60 lectures on the study and practice of the law—interspersed with a number of law exercises. The approbation these lectures have received, and the advantages derived to those who have attended them, reflect great honour on the judgment and abilities of Mr. Wilson. We hear that next winter this excellent plan is to be resumed and prosecuted.

At a stated meeting of the American philosophical society, on the 15th April the following gentlemen were elected members:

Charles Peter Thunberg, professor of natural history in the university of Upsal.

Nicholas L. Burmann, M. D. professor of botany at Amsterdam.

George Grosche, M. D. professor of natural history in the university of Mittauw, Courland.

Thomas Pennant, Esq; of Downing, in Flintshire, Great-Britain.

Hon. Henry Knox, Esq; secretary to the united states, for the department of war.

Extract from the minutes,

SAMUEL MAGAW, *Sec.*

April 30. We have authentic information that a loan for two millions and a half of florins, which was opened at Amsterdam, on the 15th of February last, on account of the United States, upon terms better than any European power, except the Emperor, now borrows in Holland, and upon equal terms with the Emperor, was subscribed or filled in two hours.* And it must afford pleasing reflections to every good American to know, that this success is attributed essentially to the high confidence inspired by the new constitution of the united states, and its present administration.

We have the satisfaction to assure the public, that the recruiting service proceeds with vigour——already upwards of five hundred men are on their march for Fort-Pitt, from the respective rendezvouses in this state, Jersey and Delaware.

Lieut. *Platt* marched from Christiana-bridge on the 27th, with a fine company enlisted for three years.

Capt. *Armstrong* marched from this city on the 27th, with a chosen company enlisted for the same period.

On the same day capt. *Snowden* marched with a detachment of one hundred levies from Trenton

And about two hundred and fifty were ordered to march yesterday from Carlisle in this state.

Besides which, a company under the command of Captain *Montfort*, enlisted for three years, are on their march from North-Carolina, to the great Kenhawa, by which they will descend to Fort Washington.

The recruits from the eastern states will rendezvous at New-Brunswick, in New-Jersey, and thence march to Fort-Pitt.

The separation of the district of Maine from the state of Massachusetts, in order to forming it into a separate government, is a subject that employs the pens of the pros and cons in the Portland papers. At a late town meeting in Portland, a committee was appointed to take this business into consideration, to report at the annual meeting in May.

The remedy recommended in cases of cows over-feeding themselves on clover, was lately tried with success on a cow that was near dying from eating too large a quantity of potatoes——An egg-shell filled with tar, was forced down her throat, which gave immediate relief.

By the state of the votes in Massachusetts, as published in the several papers, it appears that his Excellency Governor Hancock, and his Honour Lieutenant Governor Adams, are re-elected to fill those stations the ensuing year.

* *A rapidity which is said to have been hitherto without example, with regard to loans for foreign powers in that country.*

Articles respecting the tobacco trade, agreed to by the national assembly of Feance,

1st. From the publication of the present decree it shall be free to every person in the Kingdom to cultivate, manufacture, and sell tobacco, subject to the modification which shall be established relative to the manufacture and sale.

2d. The importation of foreign manufactured tobacco, shall continue to be prohibited.

3d. It shall be free to import into the ports which shall be named, foreign tobacco in leaf, subject to a duty of 25 livres per quintal. All French ships importing tobacco direct from America, shall only be subject to three fourths of this duty.

4 Foreign tobacco in leaf may be deposited in its ports of entry for one year, in warehouses appropriated for that purpose, and exported without payment of any, duty.

5th. A national company shall manufacture and sell tobacco for the benefit of the public treasury, and shall pay the same duty as individuals.

GEOGRAPHY OF AMERICA.

FURTHER progress is daily making in the geographical knowledge of our country. An accurate map of the state of Pennsylvania, will soon be published by Mr. Reading Howell. Mr. William Fatham of Virginia, has issued proposals for publishing by subscription, a large map of the southern division of the united states. The size will be nine feet by seven. It will comprehend a part of New-Jersey and Pennsylvania, the whole of Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, and Georgia: all the western territory of the united states, between 29 and 40°. N. and a part of the Spanish possessions. From the extensive information, which Mr. Fatham appears to have collected, and the character of the gentlemen who recommend, there is every reason to expect that this map will be executed with accuracy and elegance.

SINGULAR FATALITY.

Lately died in Frederick county, (Virginia) a person named Zoll, aged nineteen years. His death was occasioned by a slight cut in one of his feet, with an axe. From the time of his receiving the wound, until he expired, no method could be devised to stop the bleeding—if the wound was bound up, the blood gushed out at his mouth or nostrils. Five brothers to the above person have bled to death at different periods, from the following simple accidents:—One received a prick with a thorn—another a scratch with a comb—a third, a prick with a needle—a fourth, bruised his cheek against a stove—and the fifth received a cut in one of his thumbs. The father of the above persons has had two wives, and, by each of them, several children; those who died in this singular manner, were all by the first wife. It should be noted, that when they arrived at a certain age, several black spots were discernible upon their bodies. However marvellous this account may appear, our readers may rely on its authenticity. [*Win. Gaz.*]

DOMESTIC ECONOMY.

A gentleman's family, on a plantation in Anne-Arundel county, (Maryland) have furnished the following remarkable instance of industry:

From the first of April, 1789, to the first of March 1791, there were manufactured in this family, 126 yards of sheeting, 292 of other linen, 767 of brown rolls, 50 of bagging, 30 of cotton, 18 of jeanet, 136 of linsey, 110 of kersey, in the whole, 1529 yards; 61 pair of fine, and 87 pair of coarse stockings—besides a number of leading lines, bed-cords, clothes-lines, and other articles for the use of the plantation. Though there are on this plantation only 3 white women, some small children, and about 12 working negroes, they have made and raised for sale, in addition to the articles above mentioned, 20 hogsheads of tobacco, and 1000 bushels of wheat, yearly.

AMERICAN GENIUS.

The philosophers of Europe have long been in the habit of considering the Americans as an inferior order of beings. Even the philosophical Raynal has expressed such an idea. The numerous improvements in mechanics, agriculture, philosophy, and politics, which have been made by Americans, are sufficient to refute this position. Every day produces some improvement in agriculture and the useful arts. Let it be

remembered, that the great promoter of electrical knowledge was an American. America has shewn the world the first instance of a wife government, in which perfect liberty and energy are combined. Even in the fine arts she has proved the talents of her sons. Some of the first painters in Europe are natives of this land. Trumbull has brought the genius of painting into his own country. Barlow and Dwight have shewn that we are capable of aspiring to excellence in the higher poetry, whilst the author of M'Fingal boldly rivals even the immortal Butler in the comic style. These are mentioned only as examples. Many others have shewn great abilities. But their merits are well known, not only to their countrymen, but to foreigners.

FOREIGN MARRIAGE.

In *London*, William Franklin, Esq., formerly governor of *New-Jersey*, to Mrs. de Evelin.

FOREIGN DEATHS.

In *Staffordshire, Great Britain*, at the age of 112, William Billings, a soldier. At *Paris*, Mr Osterwald, a well known banker—though possessed of three millions of livres, he died of *want!* At *Limerick, Ireland*, Mrs. Magee, aged 102. In *Carlisle, England*, Mr. Michael Dennison, formerly of the George Tavern, *Philadelphia*—he weighed 26 stone, some time previous to his death. In *England*, in the 88th year of his age, the celebrated Mr. John Wesley.

MARRIAGES.

NEW-YORK. In the *capital*, John Kemp. L. L. D. (Professor of Mathematicks and Natural History in Columbia College) to Miss Renwick; Mr. Peter M'Dougall, to Miss Robertson.

NEW-JERSEY. Mr. Luke W. Morris of *Philadelphia*, to Miss Eliza Buckley of *Cooper's-Town*. Mr. Jonathan Wade, to Miss Phebe Dayton, of *Elizabethtown*.

PENNSYLVANIA. At *Philadelphia*, Mr. William Burke, jun. to Miss Jane Procter. At *Clifton*, the seat of Blair M'Clenachan, Esq., Dr. Solomon Bush. of *Whitemarsh*, to Miss Ann Marshall, of Philadelphia.

At *Kensington*, Mr. Benjamin Cheesman to Mrs. Mary Eyre, relict of the late Col. Benjan in G. Eyre.

VIRGINIA At *Elsing-Green*, King William county, Mr. Robert Lewis, (nephew of the President of the united states) to Miss Judith Walker Brown. In *Albemarle county*, Joseph J. Monroe, Esq to Miss Elizabeth Kerr.

NORTH-CAROLINA. At *Wilmington*, M. Nathan Ward, of *Salem*, to Miss Jane Walker.

DEATHS.

MASSACHUSETTS. At Boston, Mrs Mary Jepson, aged 81; Mr. Nathaniel Frothingham, aged 69.

RHODE-ISLAND. At *Newport*, Miss Charlotte Story; Captain George Buckmaster, aged 71.

NEW YORK. In the *capital*, Captain Samuel Prince; Captain John Finglass. At *Little Britain, Ulster county*, Dr. Charles Clinton.

NEW-JERSEY. At *Elizabeth-Town*, Matthias Ogden, Esq. late Brigadier General, in the army of the united states. At *Bordentown*, Joseph Borden, Esq.

PENNSYLVANIA. In *Philadelphia*, Nicholas Eveleigh, Esq. Comptroller of the Treasury of the United States; Mrs. Mary Duffield, consort of Dr. Samuel Duffield; Mrs. Mitchell, consort of Mr. John Mitchell; Mrs Moyston; Mrs. Heysham; Mrs. Henley; Mrs. Morton. Near *Shippensburgh*, Mr. Francis Campbell. At *Carlisle*, captain Alexander Parker. In *Delaware county*, Mr. John Gracey, aged 84. In *Blockley*, Mr. James Jones, aged 93.

MARYLAND. In *Baltimore*, Mrs. Wyant; the Rev. Dr. William West; Mrs. Elizabeth Scott, relict of George Scott, Esq. of *Prince George's* county, aged 77. At *Annapolis*, Benjamin Howard, Esq high sheriff of *Anne Arundel* county.

SOUTH-CAROLINA. At Charleston, Mr John Harbert (drowned). Mr. Alexander Inglis (killed in a duel).

Philadelphia Prices-Current,

APRIL, 30, 1791.

Beef
- Ashes, pot, p. ton, 35l.
- Pen. and Jer. p. bbl. 45s.
- Connecticut, do. 47/6.
- Boston, (wmships) 55s.

Brandy, French, p. gal. 8/6-9.
Bread, ship, per cwt. 17s-17/6.

Beer
- American, in bottles, per dozen 8/4.
- Ditto, per bbl. 30s.

Boards
- Oak, p. m. feet, 76/6-88s
- Merchant pine 95s.
- Sap, 60s.
- Cedar, 55-65s.

Chocolate, per lb. 1s.
Coffee, per. lb. 13-14d.

Flour
- Superfine, p. bl. 40s.
- Common, 37s.
- Bur mid. best, 32/6s.
- Middlings, 26-27s.
- Ship stuff, p. cwt. 10s.

Flax, per lb. 7½-9d.
Flaxseed, per bush. 5-5/9.
Ginseng, per lb. 1 6-2s.
Gin, Holland, per gal. 5/9-6s.

Grain
- Wheat, p. bush. 7/6-7/9.
- Rye, 5/9.
- Oats, 2/6.
- Indian corn, 2/6-2/9.
- Barley, 4/7.
- best shelled, 20s.
- Buckwheat, 2s.

Hams, per lb. 6¾d.
Hogs-lard, 7½d-8d.
Honey, 3½d-4d.
Hemp, per. ton, 50-56l.
Hops, per lb. 2/3-2/6
Hogshead hoops, p. m. 5-6.

Iron
- Hides raw, per lb. 9½d-10d.
- Indigo, Fr. per lb. 7/6-12s.
- Carolina, 4-6/6.
- Cast, per cwt. 22/6-30s
- Bar, per ton, 23l-30l.
- Pig, 9l-10l.
- Sheet, 60l-65l
- Nail rods, 36l.

Meal, Indian, p. bbl. 16/8-17s.
Molasses, per gal. 3s.
Nails, 10, 12 & 20d. 9d.

Oil
- Sper. strained, p. g. 3/7.
- Whale com. 2s.
- Do. Northern, 2/9.
- Tanners p. bbl. 67/6.

Parchment, per doz. 30-37/6.
Porter, American, 10/6.

Pork
- Burlington, 75s-75/6.
- Lower Co. 57/6-60s.
- Carolina, 55-60s.

Pease, 6s-7/6.
Rice, per cwt. 21/6-22s.

Rum
- Jamaica per g. 5/6.
- Windward, 4/6.
- Antigua, 5s.
- Barbadoes, 3/9-4s.
- Country, 3/6.
- Taffia, 2/9.

Steel
- German, p. cwt. 60-70s.
- English, blistered, 80s.
- mer. p. ton, 40-60s.
- Crowley's, p. fag. 85s.

Snake root, p. lb. 1/6-2/8
Soap, common, 6d
Castile, 9
Starch, 4d-6d

Sugar
- Lump, per lb. 16d
- Loaf, sing. refin. 17-18d.
- Ditto, double di to. 20d.
- Muscovado, p. cwt. 65s-82/6.

Salt
- Allum, p. bush. 2/2.
- Liverpool, 2/4.
- Cadiz, 2s-2/3.
- Lisbon, 2/2-2/4.

Tar
- N. Jer. 24 g. 7/6.
- Carolina, 32 g. 11/3.
- Turpentine, 16/8.

Tobacco, 100lb.
- J. R. n vo best, 27/6-28s.
- Inferior, 20s-22/6.
- Old, 35-37/6.
- Rappahan. 22/6-24s.
- Coloured Maryl. 30-90s.
- Dark, 18/9-20s.
- Long leaf, 18/9-20s.
- Eastern Shore, 16s-20s.
- Carolina, new, 22/6-25s
- Old, 25-30s.

Tea
- Hyson, p. lb. 7/6-8/9.
- Souchong, 4/1-6/8.
- Congo, 3/9-5/9.
- Bohea, 2/6.

Wine
- Mad. p. p. 40l-75l.
- Lisbon, 30l.
- Teneriffe, p. g. 3/9.
- Fayal, p. g. 3/4.
- Port, per pipe, 40-42l10s
- Ditto, per gal. 5/10.
- Dit. per doz. bot. 28-30s.
- Claret, 30-60s.
- Sherry, p. gal. 7/6.
- Malaga, 6s.

Wax, bees, per lb. 1/10½-2s.

Current Prices of PUBLIC SECURITIES.

Funded debt.	6 per Cents	17/1 ——— 17/2. per £. or 86	per Cent.
	3 per Cents	9/1 ——— 9/2. or 46	do.
	Defered 6 per Cents	9/1. 45	do.
Unfunded do.	Final Settl. and other Certificates	16s, 80	do.
	Indents	9s. 45	do.
	State debts	12/¼ ——— 12/½. 62½	do.

COURSE of EXCHANGE.

Bills of Exchange, London,	90 days, 68—69.	Amsterdam,	60 days, per guilder, 3s.
Dito,	60 days, 70—71.		30 days, 3/8
Ditto	30 days, 72½.	France,	60 days, per 5 livres, 6/3
			30 days, 6/1

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of MARCH, 1791.

Days.	Barom. Eng. foot. In.	Therm. of Farenh. D.	Reaum. D.	Anemometer Prevail. Wind	Rain	Snow		WEATHER.
1	30 1	10	7	31	2	1	0	NW				Fair
	30 2	7	35	4	1	5		WNW				Idem
2	30 4	11	27	5	2	0	0	WNW				Idem
	30 1	14	44	4	5	5		S				Idem
3	29 11	8	36	7	2	1		WSW				Idem
	30 0	0	55	2	10	3		W				Idem
4	30 4	6	34	7	1	2		W				Idem
	30 4	7	46	8	6	6		S				Idem
5	30 4	11	35	1	1	4		NE	1			Cloudy, Rain
	30 3	7	53	4	9	5		SW				Idem
6	30 0	7	44	4	5	5		SSW	1			Cloudy, fog, Rain
	29 11	1	57	6	11	4		SSW	1			Idem Rain in the night
7	29 10	9	55	2	10	3		WSW				Cloudy, fog
	29 8	15	68	5	16	0		WSW				Idem Idem
8	30 0	2	34	9	1	3		WNW				Fair
	30 0	6	46	8	6	6		WNW				Idem
9	30 5	13	29	5	1	1	0	NNE				Idem
	30 4	8	47	1	6	7		SW				Cloudy
10	30 0	15	53	4	9	5		SW	1			Rain
	30 0	5	64	2	14	3		SW				Cloudy
11	30 2	8	44	6	5	6		NE	1			Rain
	30 2	2	45	5	6	0		NE				Cloudy
12	30 3	0	42	3	4	6		NE	1			Rain
	30 2	1	49	5	7	8		W				Cloudy
13	30 6	0	32	9	0	4		NNW				Fair
	30 5	10	49	8	7	9		WSW				Idem
14	30 3	6	40	3	3	7		W	1			Rain
	30 2	7	51	8	8	8		WSW	1			Cloudy Rain
15	30 0	8	47	3	6	8		SSE	1			Idem Idem
	29 11	7	59	0	12	0		SW				Cloudy
16	30 1	8	46	6	6	5		NE	1			Idem Rain
	30 0	8	56	7	11	0		NE				Fair
17	30 0	0	46	6	6	5		NNE				Idem
	29 11	7	80	4	21	5		SW				Idem
18	29 11	12	55	2	10	3		SW				Idem
	29 11	6	80	1	21	4		SW				Idem
19	30 1	12	44	6	5	0		NNE	1			Rain,
	30 2	3	39	9	3	5		W	1			Sleet, snow
20	30 3	12	33	6	0	7		W				Fair
	30 2	11	41	0	4	0		W				Idem
21	30 0	6	35	1	1	4		W				Cloudy
	29 8	6	50	2	8	1		WSW				Idem
22	29 10	13	45	0	5	8		NNW				Idem
	30 0	8	49	1	7	6		NW				Fair
23	30 4	4	36	0	1	8		ESE				Idem
	30 3	4	52	2	9	0		S				Cloudy,
24	30 0	4	48	9	7	5		WSW				Idem, fog
	29 10	10	69	1	16	5		WSW	1	1		Idem, rain, thunder
25	29 9	11	59	9	12	4		W				Cloudy
	29 10	6	63	9	14	2		WNW				Idem
26	30 5	6	43	5	5	1		NW				Fair
	30 5	8	60	3	12	6		NNE				Idem
27	30 7	4	2	1	4	5		N				Idem
	30 7	1	60	3	12	6		NNE				Idem
28	30 6	1	38	7	3	0		NE				Cloudy
	30 5	6	50	0	8	0		NE				Idem
29	30 4	12	44	1	5	4		NE				Idem
	30 4	2	46	6	6	5		N	1			Rain
30	30 3	13	44	1	5	4		NNW				Cloudy
	30 3	2	60	3	12	6		N				Idem
31	30 3	0	44	4	5	5		WNW				Fair
	30 1	4	58	8	11	9		NW				Idem

RESULT:								
	27 Diff. gr. ele.		7	89	4	21	5	
	30 Diff. least el.		4	58	least de. of heat			
	29	8	6	47	3	2	1	0
	Variation			Variation				
	0	10	14	53	1	23	6	
	Mean eleva.			Temperature				
	30	2	11	48	2	11	2	

Variab	14	1	1	Variable

THE

UNIVERSAL ASYLUM,

AND

Columbian Magazine,

FOR MAY 1791.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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Together with an ADMIRED piece of MUSICK.

PHILADELPHIA:

PRINTED, FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, No. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

To CORRESPONDENTS.

AN *eſſay on puppyiſm* came to hand too late in the month for the preſent number—It ſhall have a place in our next.

The *Tutor*, No. I, is received. An interview with the author is requeſted.

Genius, an ode; *Ambition*, an ode; a *poem* entitled *Docility*; the *Unfortunate man*, and an *Elegy* on a *ſuicide*, together with a variety of other valuable pieces from our poetical correſpondents, are only poſtponed for want of room. They will all be inſerted, if poſſible, in the courſe of the two ſucceeding months.

The *Nunnery*; the *Lovers*, and the *Hymeneal verſes*, appear to be the offspring of the ſame muſe. Their *humour* is not ſufficient to atone for the *poiſon to morals* with which it is accompanied.

Ariſtocracy, a *mock-heroick* poem, is a truly laughable performance; but we do not deal in *perſonalities*.

Summer, a poem, was certainly not written in the warm weather of an American ſummer.

The *Duel* diſcovers a good moral intention, we are ſorry its *poetic merit* is not ſuch as to entitle it to a place in our *Parnaſſiad*.

The ſentiments of *A Philadelphian* are characteriſtic of a good heart, but they are combined with ſo many trite obſervations and extracts, from newſpapers, &c. that the performance is inadmiſſible.,

However innocent Maria's curioſity may be, we muſt not comply with her requeſt. With editors and printers, the names of authors are ſacred, and ought not to be divulged without their permiſſion.

Horatio's eſſay, from the manner in which it is written, would involve us in a controverſy, on a ſubject that ought never to be diſcuſſed, but with the utmoſt coolneſs, candour, and liberality. Though we are as fully convinced of the injuſtice and abſurdity of religious eſtabliſhments as our correſpondent, yet we cannot agree with him, that the particular branch of the Chriſtian church to which he alludes, has "uniformly evinced a ſtronger diſpoſition than any other, to tyrannize over the conſciences of men." In the religious, as well as in the political world, men in power, of whatever party or perſuaſion, have too generally been diſpoſed to tyrannize over others.

Sundry papers, received near the end of the month, have not been determined upon. Some of them, however, will probably appear in the *Aſylum* for June.

THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR MAY, 1791.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

ACCOUNT *of the late* FRANCIS HOPKINSON, *Esq.*

IT would be an injury to the literary and political character of the ſtate of Pennſylvania, to ſuffer a perſon of ſuch various and brilliant talents as the late Francis Hopkinſon, to deſcend to the grave, without a ſmall tribute of reſpect to his memory.

This gentleman poſſeſſed an uncommon ſhare of genius of a peculiar kind. He excelled in muſic and poetry, and had ſome knowledge in painting. But theſe arts did not monopoliſe all the powers of his mind. He was well ſkilled in many practical and uſeful ſciences, particularly mathematics and natural philoſophy, and he had a general acquaintance with the principles of anatomy, chemiſtry, and natural hiſtory.—But his *forte* was *humour* and *ſatire*, in both of which he was not ſurpaſſed by Lucian, Swift, or Rabellais. Theſe extraordinary powers were conſecrated to the advancement of the intereſts of patriotiſm, virtue, and ſcience. It would fill many pages to mention his numerous publications during the late revolution, all of which were directed to thoſe important objects.——He began in the year 1775, with a ſmall tract which he entitled "A pretty ſtory" in which he expoſed the tyranny of Great Britain in America, by a moſt beautiful allegory, and he concluded his contributions to his country, in this way, with the hiſtory of "a new roof." A performance, which for wit, humour, and good ſenſe, muſt laſt as long as the citizens of America continue to admire, and to be happy under, the preſent national government of the united ſtates.

* He invented an improved tongue for the harpſichord; a deſcription of which accompanied with an engraving, may be ſeen in the Columbian Magazine for May 1787. He alſo publiſhed a ſmall collection of ſongs, compoſed and ſet to muſick by himſelf, which have been univerſally admired.

Newſpaper ſcandal, frequently for months together, diſappeared or languiſhed, after the publication of ſeveral of his irreſiſtible ſatires upon that diſgraceful ſpecies of writing. He gave a currency to a *thought* or *phraſe* in theſe effuſions from his pen, which never failed to bear down the ſpirit of the times, and frequently to turn the divided tides of party-rage, into one general channel of ridicule or contempt.

Sometimes he employed his formidable powers of humour and ſatire in expoſing the formalities of technical ſcience.—He thought much, and thought juſtly, upon the ſubject of education. He often ridiculed in converſation, the practice of teaching children the Engliſh language by means of grammar. He conſidered moſt of the years which are ſpent in learning the Latin and Greek languages as loſt, and he held ſeveral of the arts and ſciences which are ſtill taught in our colleges, in great contempt. His ſpecimen of modern learning, in a tedious examination, the only object of which was to deſcribe the properties of a "ſalt-box," publiſhed in the American muſeum for February 1787, will always be reliſhed as a morſel of exquiſite humour, while the preſent abſurd modes of education continue to be practiſed in the united ſtates.

Mr. Hopkinſon poſſeſſed uncommon talents for pleaſing in company. His wit was not of that coarſe kind which was calculated to "ſet the table in a roar." It was mild and elegant, and infuſed cheerfulneſs, and a ſpecies of delicate joy, rather than mirth, into the hearts of all who heard it. His empire over the attention and paſſions of his company was not purchaſed at the expenſe of innocence. A perſon who has paſſed many delightful hours in his ſociety, declares, with pleaſure, that he never once heard him uſe a profane expreſſion, nor utter a word that would have made a lady bluſh, or have clouded her countenance for a moment with a look of diſapprobation. It is this ſpecies of wit alone that indicates a rich and powerful imagination, while that which is tinctured with profanity, or indelicacy, argues poverty of genius, inaſmuch as they have both been conſidered, very properly, as the cheapeſt products of the mind.

Mr. Hopkinſon's character for abilities and patriotiſm procured him the confidence of his countrymen in the moſt trying exigencies of their affairs. He repreſented the ſtate of New-Jerſey in the year 1776, and ſubſcribed the ever-memorable declaration of independence. He held an appointment in the loan-office for ſeveral years, and afterwards ſucceeded George Roſs Eſq. as judge of the admiralty for the ſtate of Pennſylvania. In this ſtation he continued till the year 1790, when he was appointed judge of the diſtrict court in Pennſylvania, by the Preſident of the united ſtates. In each of theſe judicial offices, he conducted himſelf with integrity. His education qualified him for their duties, for he had been regularly bred to the law, under Benjamin Chew Eſq. when attorney general of Pennſylvania.

He was an active and uſeful member of three great parties which at different times divided his native ſtate—he was a *whig*, a *republican*, and a *federaliſt*, and he lived to ſee the principles and wiſhes of each of thoſe parties finally and univerſally ſucceſsful. Although his labours had been rewarded with many plentiful harveſts of well-earned fame,

yet his death, to his country and his friends, was premature. He had been ſubject to frequent attacks of the gout in his head, but for ſome time before his death, he had enjoyed a conſiderable reſpite from them. On Sunday evening, May the 8th, he was ſomewhat indiſpoſed, and paſſed a reſtleſs night after he went to bed. He roſe on Monday morning at his uſual hour, and breakfaſted with his family.—At ſeven o'clock he was ſeized with an apoplectic fit, which in two hours put a period to his exiſtence, in the 53d year of his age.

His perſon was a little below the common ſize. His features were ſmall, but extremely animated. His ſpeech was quick, and all his motions ſeemed to partake of the unceaſing activity and verſatility of the powers of his mind.

It only remains to add to this account of Mr. Hopkinſon, that the various cauſes which contributed to the eſtabliſhment of the independence and federal government of the united ſtates, will not be *fully traced*, unleſs much is aſcribed to the irreſiſtible influence of the *ridicule* which he poured forth, from time to time, upon the enemies of thoſe great political events.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

A comparitive view of the UTILITY *of different branches of* EDUCATION.

I. A FAIR hand—good ſpelling—a knowledge in orthography —arithmetic, and geography—are like *ſmall coin*, ſuch as *ſilver-pieces* and *pennies*, which enable a man to travel every where, and to be at home in all countries. They are alike current in market-places and ſtores, and are equally neceſſary to men of all profeſſions and occupations. To attempt to live in ſociety without this *ready change*, is like attempting to live without air.

II. Natural and political hiſtory—the *practical* branches of metaphyſicks, and the mathematicks—the French and German languages—and a knowledge in the arts of promoting national happineſs by means of free governments, agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, may be compared to *guineas*, *Louis d'ors*, *and half-joes*. They conſtitute the wealth of the mind, and qualify the men who poſſeſs them to become the pillars and ornaments of ſociety.

III. The arts of communicating knowledge with eaſe and elegance, by means of *ſpeaking* and *writing*, may be compared to *bank-notes*, which are very valuable and eaſily transferred from place to place, to the great emolument of ſociety, without trouble or expenſe.

VI. Aſtronomy—logic—and the *ſpeculative* branches of mathematicks and metaphyſicks are like *family-plate*, valuable in themſelves, but proper only for perſons of a certain rank, and entirely uſeleſs in the purſuits of the greateſt part of mankind.

V. The Latin and Greek languages may juſtly be compared to *old continental* money. They are eſtimable only for the ſervices they *have*

performed. They reſemble continental money further, in having injured or ruined all thoſe perſons who have amaſſed great quantities of them, to the excluſion of more uſeful and neceſſary branches of education.

On the impolicy of beſtowing our ſole attention upon AGRICULTURE, *to the excluſion of* MANUFACTURES.

THE conſtant cry of the Britiſh merchants to the Americans is, you are by nature deſigned for an agricultural ſociety: You have an abundance of land; an extenſive country adapted to the culture of almoſt every kind of valuable productions: To the multiplying of theſe productions you ſhould bend your whole united efforts, and leave to Europeans the trouble of tranſporting theſe products to foreign markets—working up into the various manufactures that part which are deſigned for ſuch improvements, and returning you ſuch of them as are ſuited to your markets. But why, I aſk, do they conſtantly ring this peal in our ears? Is it becauſe that manual labour, applied to the production of raw materials, will procure the perſon who performs it more of the conveniencies of life than the ſame quantity of labour employed in manufactures?—Certainly not; otherwiſe common labourers in the field would get better monthly wages than tradeſmen, which every one knows is not the caſe.—Would it not, therefore, be quite as wiſe and economical for the Americans to ſend their wheat to London to be made into flour, and returned for their conſumption, as to ſell the Britiſh merchant their tobacco, and import from Great Britain their ſnuff—and ſo of their iron, &c. Theſe foreign counſellors, aided by ill-informed and intereſted Americans, urge us to labour in the field altogether, and leave it to the Britons, the Perſians, and the Chineſe, to clothe us for feeding them. Let us examine this matter, and ſee if this advice be the reſult of friendſhip for us, or from an inſidious plan, long ſince laid, of keeping us always dependent on them, and ſubjected to their domination.

It is true, we have, at much expenſe and hazard, ſet ourſelves free from the dominion of their government—we have ſet their armies at defiance—but not their artiſans. We are not in reality independent, whilſt we are obliged to look to them for our neceſſary cloathing, or even ſuperfluous ornaments.

Suppoſe the whole population of this country, which is ſo rapidly increaſing, were devoted to huſbandry—what depredations would be made in our foreſts! How ſoon would our fields be clothed with every kind of grain—and our paſtures filled with cattle, feeding on a thouſand hills! This would be charming—no fear of a famine—every one would have food for aſking for it—but what price would our proviſions bring, and what is to be done with the ſurplus of them? Why, ſay theſe wiſe men from the eaſt, (and their humble retailers of this country,) let the Europeans come and fetch them away, or ſtarve.—This is very good—and pray what are we to do if their

crops ſhould not happen to fail them—or when their kings ſhould be tired of war, and conſent that their ſubjects be permitted to cultivate their own fields in ſafety; will theſe foreigners, out of mere charity, come and take your ſuperfluous crops off your hands? Will they give you a generous price for your wheat, &c.? I preſume not. Pray let me aſk theſe politicians, theſe friends from the other ſide of the water, who are ſo alarmed leſt we injure ourſelves, by engaging improvidently in manufactures, why grain is dearer in England than in America.—Our lands do not produce ſo many buſhels on the acre as theirs—we give higher for labour, and yet we underſell them ſo much in market, that their farmers would be ruined if a free importation from this country were admitted. I ſhall probably be told that rents in that country are higher, and that cauſes the difference; but I demand, why are rents higher there than here? Why becauſe the products of land will ſell ſo much higher there than here. And why do they ſell ſo much higher there than here? Is it for exportation? No ſuch thing—It is becauſe of the multitude of their mechanics and artizans, who create a conſtant demand for home conſumption.

A home market is always the beſt, abating extraordinary demands that may ariſe from the accidental failure of crops in a foreign country; or the ruinous depredations of an enemy. The average price of wheat in England, I ſuppoſe may be ſtated at 6s. to 6s. 6d. ſterling a buſhel. When it ariſes to 7s. a buſhel, their ports are opened for importation, leſt the dearneſs of bread ſhould injure their manufactures; but when it falls to the uſual ſtandard, their importations are prohibited, leſt the farming intereſt ſhould ſuffer.

The average price of wheat in America, taken at the farmers' houſes, may be rated at 3-4 to 5-6 of a dollar; though at the ports of exportation it may average one dollar. But if our country were as full of manufacturers as Great Britain, our grain would be principally wanted for home conſumption, and the price would be raiſed to 5s. 3d. or even 6s. ſterling the buſhel. The farmer would then ſave not only the tranſportation to the ſea-port towns; but the ſubſequent ſtorage, ſhipping coaſtwiſe, freight, inſurance, &c. to Europe; and the price and rent of lands would riſe in proportion. But this is not the whole advantage—if we can make our own cloathing, it will ſoon reduce the price materially, and enable the farmer to make a ſaving in his purchaſes as well as on the ſales of his crops, ſo that the farming intereſt is moſt intimately concerned in the ſucceſs of our manufactures. Whenever wool becomes as plenty in this country as it is in England, the price of woolen goods made here will be as low as thoſe of the ſame quality are in that country; and the expenſe of purchaſing, package, ſtorage, ſhipping, charges, freight, and inſurance, will be a clear ſaving to this country. This cannot be rated at leſs than 20 per cent. on all our importations.——Think of theſe things, my countrymen, and let your patriotiſm appear by your conduct.

Account *of the Manners of the* People *who reside at the* Cape *of* Good Hope.

[*From Vaillant's Travels.*]

On entering a houſe, you are always preſented with a ſopi, that is to ſay, with a glaſs of arrack, Geneva, or perhaps French Brandy. Geneva, however, is the common morning dram. Before they ſit down to table, the etiquette is, to offer a ſopi of white wine, in which wormwood or aloes have been ſteeped, to create an appetite. At table they drink beer or wine indiſcriminately. After the deſſert, the ladies retire to a different apartment, they then bring in pipes and tobacco, with a recruit of wine for the men; mean time the ladies are ſerved with coffee, rheniſh, and moſelle. They then form themſelves into card-parties, while the men continue to drink and ſmoak; if any intereſting or witty ſubject is ſtarted among them, it is ſure to furniſh a pretext for a few more bumpers. This is their uſual manner of living, with this difference, that thoſe in indifferent circumſtances drink their own wine, but in this particular, the vanity of the inhabitants is often very ridiculous; one day as I was walking with Mr. Boers, he made me obſerve a man ſeated at the door of his houſe, who ſeeing we were near him, began calling to his ſlave with a loud voice, to bring him ſome red wine, though the fiſcal aſſured me, he had not a ſingle bottle at his command, and that moſt likely he had not drunk of it ten times in his life; when I had paſſed him ſome little way, I turned and ſaw that it was beer his ſlave had brought him.

For twelve leagues round the Cape, the coloniſts do not employ Hottentots, rather buying negroes who are not ſo lazy; and whom they can more ſafely truſt. The Hottentots, careleſs and inconſtant by nature, often go away on the approach of hard labour, and leave their maſters in embarraſſment; the negroes deſert alſo, but vain are their efforts for liberty, they are ſoon retaken, and ſent to the bailiff of the canton, from whom the proſecutor reclaims them for a ſmall fine, after they have received ſome trifling correction; nor is there any part of the world where the ſlaves are treated with ſuch humanity as at the Cape.

The negroes of Moſambique and Madagaſcar are regarded as the beſt workmen, and moſt affectionate to their maſters; when they are landed at the Cape, they uſually ſell from 120 to 150 piaſters a head.

The Indians are more employed in houſhold work in the town; there are alſo Malayans, who are the moſt ſubtle and dangerous of ſlaves. Aſſaſſinating their maſter or miſtreſs is with them a common crime; during the five years I paſſed in Africa, I ſaw many inſtances of it. They go to execution with the greateſt indifference. I heard one of theſe wretches ſay to Mr. Boers, he was glad he had committed the crime, that he well knew the death attending the commiſſion of it, which he ardently wiſhed for, as it would return him to his native country. I am amazed ſuch an error does not cauſe greater misfortunes.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

HISTORY *of the* LIFE *and* CHARACTER *of* BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, L. L. D. *&c. &c. &c.*

(Continued from page 134.)

THE disturbances produced in America by Mr. Grenville's stamp act, and the opposition made to it are well known. Under the marquis of Rockingham's administration, it appeared expedient to endeavour to calm the minds of the colonists, and the repeal of the odious tax was contemplated. Amongst other means of collecting information on the disposition of the people to submit to it, Dr. Franklin was called to the bar of the House of Commons. The examination which he here underwent was published, and contains a striking proof of the extent and accuracy of his information, and the facility with which he communicated his sentiments. He represented facts in so strong a point of view, that the inexpediency of the act must have appeared clear to every unprejudiced mind. The act, after some opposition, was repealed, about a year after it was enacted, and before it had ever been carried into execution.

In the year 1766, he made a visit to Holland and Germany, and received the greatest marks of attention from men of science. In his passage through Holland, he learned from the watermen the effect which a diminution of the quantity of water in canals has, in impeding the progress of boats. Upon his return to England, he was led to make a number of experiments, all of which tended to confirm the observation. These, with an explanation of the phenomenon, he communicated in a letter to his friend, Sir John Pringle, which is contained in the volume of his philosophical pieces.——

In the following year he travelled into France, where he met with a no less favourable reception than he had experienced in Germany. He was introduced to a number of literary characters, and to the king, Louis XV.

Several letters written by Hutchinson, Oliver, and others, to persons in eminent stations in Great Britain, came into the hands of Dr. Franklin. These contained the most violent invectives against the leading characters of the state of Massachusetts, and strenuously advised the prosecution of vigorous measures, to compel the people to obedience to the measures of the ministry. These he transmitted to the legislature, by whom they were published. Attested copies of them were sent to Great Britain, with an address, praying the king to discharge from office, persons who had rendered themselves so obnoxious to the people, and who had shewn themselves so unfriendly to their interests. The publication of these letters produced a duel between Mr. Whately and Mr. Temple, each of whom was suspected of having been instrumental in procuring them. To prevent any further disputes on this subject, Dr. Franklin, in one of the public papers, declared that he had sent them to America, but would give no information concerning the manner in which he had obtained them; nor was this ever discovered.

Shortly after, the petition of the Maſſachuſetts Aſſembly was taken up for examination, before the privy council. Dr. Franklin attended, as agent for the aſſembly, and here a torrent of the moſt violent and unwarranted abuſe was poured upon him, by the Solicitor General, Wedderburne, who was engaged as council for Oliver and Hutchinſon. The petition was declared to be ſcandalous and vexatious, and the prayer of it refuſed.

Although the parliament of Great Britain had repealed the ſtamp act, it was only upon the principle of expediency. They ſtill inſiſted upon their right to tax the colonies; and, at the ſame time that the ſtamp act was repealed, an act was paſſed, declaring the right of parliament to bind the colonies in all caſes whatſoever. This language was uſed even by the moſt ſtrenuous oppoſers of the ſtamp act, and amongſt others, by Mr. Pitt. This right was never recognized by the coloniſts. But, as they flattered themſelves that it would not be exerciſed, they were not very active in remonſtrating againſt it. Had this pretended right been ſuffered to remain dormant, the coloniſts would cheerfully have furniſhed their quota of ſupplies, in the mode to which they had been accuſtomed; that is, by acts of their own aſſemblies, in conſequence of requiſitions from the ſecretary of ſtate. If this practice had been purſued, ſuch was the diſpoſition of the colonies towards the mother country, that notwithſtanding the diſadvantages under which they laboured, from reſtraints upon their trade, calculated ſolely for the benefit of the commercial and manufacturing intereſts of Great Britain, a ſeparation of the two countries might have been a far diſtant event. The Americans, from their earlieſt infancy, were taught to venerate a people from whom they were deſcended, whoſe language, laws, and manners, were the ſame as their own. They looked up to them as models of perfection; and, in their prejudiced minds, the moſt enlightened nations of Europe were conſidered, as almoſt barbarians, in compariſon with Engliſhmen. The name of an Engliſhman conveyed to an American the idea of every thing good and great. Such ſentiments inſtilled into them in early life, what but a repetition of unjuſt treatment could have induced them to entertain the moſt diſtant thought of ſeparation! The duties on glaſs, paper, leather, painter's colours, tea, &c.; the diſfranchiſement of ſome of the colonies; the obſtruction to the meaſures of the legiſlature in others, by the king's governors; the contemptuous treatment of their humble remonſtrances, ſtating their grievances and praying a redreſs of them, and other violent and oppreſſive meaſures, at length excited an ardent ſpirit of oppoſition. Inſtead of endeavouring to allay this, by a more lenient conduct, the miniſtry ſeemed reſolutely bent upon reducing the colonies to the moſt ſlaviſh obedience to their decrees. But this tended only to aggravate. Vain were all the efforts made uſe of, to prevail upon them to lay aſide their deſigns, to convince them of the impoſſibility of carrying them into effect, and of the miſchievous conſequences which muſt enſue from a continuance of the attempt. They perſevered, with a degree of inflexibility ſcarcely paralleled.

The advantages which Great Britain derived from her colonies were ſo great, that nothing but a degree of infatuation, little ſhort

of madneſs, could have produced a continuance of meaſures calculated to keep up a ſpirit of uneaſineſs, which might occaſion the ſlighteſt wiſh for a ſeparation. When we conſider the great improvements in the ſcience of government, the general diffuſion of the principles of liberty amongſt the people of Europe, the effects which theſe have already produced in France, and the probable conſequences which will reſult from them elſewhere, all of which are the offspring of the American Revolution, it cannot but appear ſtrange, that events of ſo great moment to the happineſs of mankind, ſhould have been ultimately occaſioned by the wickedneſs or ignorance of a Britiſh miniſtry.

Dr. Franklin left nothing untried to prevail upon the miniſtry to conſent to a change of meaſures. In private converſations, and in letters to perſons in government, he continually expatiated upon the impolicy and injuſtice of their conduct towards America; and ſtated, that notwithſtanding the attachment of the coloniſts to the mother country, a repetition of ill treatment muſt ultimately alienate their affections. They liſtened not to his advice. They blindly perſevered in their own ſchemes, and left to the coloniſts no alternative, but oppoſition or unconditional ſubmiſſion. The latter accorded not with the principles of freedom, which they had been taught to revere. To the former they were compelled, though reluctantly, to have recourſe.

Dr. Franklin, finding all efforts to reſtore harmony between Great Britain and her colonies uſeleſs, returned to America in the year 1775, juſt after the commencement of hoſtilities. The day after his return he was elected by the legiſlature of Pennſylvania a delegate to Congreſs. Not long after his election a committee was appointed, conſiſting of Mr. Lynch, Mr. Harriſon, and himſelf, to viſit the camp at Cambridge, and, in conjunction with the commander in chief, to endeavour to convince the troops, whoſe term of enliſtment was about to expire, of the neceſſity of their continuing in the field, and perſevering in the cauſe of their country.

In the fall of the ſame year he viſited Canada, to endeavour to unite them in the common cauſe of liberty. But they could not be prevailed upon to oppoſe the meaſures of the Britiſh government. M. Le Roy, in a letter annexed to Abbe Fauchet's eulogium of Dr. Franklin, ſtates that the ill ſucceſs of this negociation was occaſioned, in a great degree, by religious animoſities, which ſubſiſted between the Canadians and their neighbours, ſome of whom had at different times burnt their chapels.

When lord Howe came to America, in 1776, veſted with power to treat with the coloniſts, a correſpondence took place between him and Dr. Franklin, on the ſubject of a reconciliation. Dr. Franklin was afterwards appointed, together with John Adams and Edward Rutledge, to wait upon the commiſſioners, in order to learn the extent of their power. Theſe were found to be only to grant pardons upon ſubmiſſion. Theſe were terms which would not be accepted; and the object of the commiſſioners could not be obtained.

The momentous queſtion of independence was ſhortly after brought into view, at a time when the fleets and armies, which were ſent to

enforce obedience were truly formidable. With an army, numerous indeed, but ignorant of diſcipline, and entirely unſkilled in the art of war, without money, without a fleet, without allies, and with nothing but the love of liberty to ſupport them, the coloniſts determined to ſeparate from a country, from which they had experienced a repetition of injury and inſult. In this queſtion, Dr. Franklin was decidedly in favour of the meaſure propoſed, and had great influence in bringing over others to his ſentiments.

The public mind had been pretty fully prepared for this event, by Mr. Paine's celebrated pamphlet, *Common Senſe*. There is good reaſon to believe that Dr. Franklin had no inconſiderable ſhare, at leaſt in furniſhing materials for this work.

In the convention which aſſembled at Philadelphia, in 1776, for the purpoſe of eſtabliſhing a new form of government for the ſtate of Pennſylvania, Dr. Franklin was choſen Preſident. The late conſtitution of this ſtate, which was the reſult of their deliberations, may be conſidered as a digeſt of his principles of government. The ſingle legiſlature and the plural executive ſeem to have been his favourite tenets.

In the latter end of 1776, Dr. Franklin was appointed to aſſiſt in the negociations which had been ſet on foot by Silas Deane at the court of France. A conviction of the advantages of a commercial intercourſe with America, and a deſire of weakening the Britiſh empire by diſmembering it, firſt induced the French court to liſten to propoſals of an alliance. But they ſhewed rather a reluctance to the meaſure, which, by Dr. Franklin's addreſs, and particularly by the ſucceſs of the American arms againſt general Burgoyne, was at length overcome, and in February 1778, a treaty of alliance offenſive and defenſive was concluded, in conſequence of which, France became involved in the war with Great Britain.

(*To be continued.*)

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

LOOK AT HOME; *A moral eſſay.*

WE are, or at leaſt many of us are, extremely diſquieted at the proſpect of public affairs in Europe. Some imagine, that the autocratix of all the Ruſſias is already in poſſeſſion of the ſeraglio of Conſtantinople. Will not this be a revolution of the moſt extraordinary nature? The ladies of that ſeminary will moſt probably be ſhortly expelled, even without being allowed penſions; and the Empreſs, it is expected, will invite the moſt accompliſhed of the bolder ſex, of whatever nations they may be, to engage in her ſervice. Such is the mutability of human affairs, that this event is by no means improbable in the opinion of many. But even if we allow that it ſhould take place, how can it affect us free Americans? We are ſo remote from the ſcene of action, that we may contemplate it,

as we behold a tragedy ; condemn inordinate ambition, and lament the weakneſs of thoſe who, enliſted under the banners of deſpotiſm, that peſt of human ſociety, may be inſenſibly induced to diſperſe it over other regions. But we are expoſed to no danger in this reſpect. Let me however, juſt hint, that it is prudent, even in times of the utmoſt ſecurity, to *look at home*.

The late revolution in France was truly extraordinary. Monarchy, but a few years ago, was ſeated in that country, according to all appearances, on a rock of adamant. She now looks like fortune, whoſe pedeſtal is a rolling ſtone. At one inſtant ſhe appears to fall ; and at the next to riſe again. The mild character of Lewis the ſixteenth is now reprobated, and again applauded ; whilſt the ſterner virtues of the patriot experience a ſimilar viciſſitude of opinion. Plots and counterplots have been talked of, ſurely, therefore, I ſhall not be condemned, if, with all reſpect, I adviſe that people to *look at home*.

With regard to the other nations of Europe, however their rulers may approve or diſapprove of this, almoſt unprecedented change, let them reflect on their own ſituation, without intereſting themſelves too much in the affairs of France. It is their duty, particularly as revolutions are now the *ton*, to *look at home*.

I am by no means diſpoſed to dwell on the affairs of Africa, or Aſia ; and for a very good reaſon—I know but little about them. The accounts we receive, are either ſo complex, or ſo contradictory, that conjecture muſt ſupply the place of information. But, as this eſſay is intended to be completed on the baſis of truth, I will only juſt hint to certain potentates on the ſhores of the Mediterranean, that thoſe who encourage rapine, are generally the victims of it ; and that conſequently they are eſſentially bound to *look at home*.

I muſt now pay ſome reſpect to our own national affairs. Since the peace, till lately, we have been, commercially ſpeaking, *looking abroad*, like thoſe who ſtare in the ſtreets, regardleſs of their ſteps. But ſince we have prudently encouraged internal induſtry, we may be fairly ſaid, in this inſtance, to begin to *look at home*.

We have examined the beſt models of republican government ; and are almoſt univerſally of opinion, we have choſen that which is the beſt adapted to our circumſtances. Be it the care of all to adhere to it in ſuch a manner as to inſure it ſucceſs ; and how can this be done but by a due ſubmiſſion to the laws ? Let us therefore moſt attentively *look at home*.

When Amaryllis cenſures the homely appearance of Flavia, and when Flavia condemns the flaunting airs of Amaryllis ; when Strephon arrogates to himſelf perſonal merit, ſuperior to that of Corydon, who reflects on his rival with equal haughtineſs ; when the palm of wit is diſputed by Menalcas and Tityrus, who are ſeverely ridiculed by others ; in ſhort, in all caſes, perſonal, domeſtic, commercial, or foreign, it becomes us to be cautious of claiming too much. It is therefore evident, that in all thoſe inſtances, and in many others which might be adduced, it is abſolutely neceſſary, that we ſhould *look at home*.

W. S.

Philadelphia, May 1791.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

The INTRUDER.

THE character which I intend to deſcribe, is known to moſt; yet may I be allowed to deſignate it in ſuch a manner, that it ſhall be acknowledged by all?

There are intruders on buſineſs, who, with faces deſcriptive of buſtle, give the trader reaſon to believe, that money is to be expected, when nothing is intended, but to while away an idle hour. Such frequently lay aſide the appearance of hurry, and with ſtoic indifference ſtand near the counter; lean over a chair; pretend to peruſe a newſpaper; enquire into the reports of the day; and, if attended to, will, with equal judgment, diſcriminate between the merits of a mountebank and a preacher of truth. Thoſe intruders, when treated agreeably to their deſerts, are not long troubleſome. They have their exits and their entrances, till at night, they at length intrude on their families —and there I ſhall reſign them to the poſſeſſion of quiet, if they are capable of enjoying it.

We ſhall alſo find intruders on worſhip. Such will, with vacant looks and unſuſceptible hearts, interrupt the ſolemn hours of public devotion. Staring around, they inſenſibly excite curioſity in others. The intruder is acknowledged to be a ſtrange man; and is therefore ſtared at in turn, eſpecially by the younger part of the congregation. His cough is but the echo of falſe conſequence. He riſes when he ought to ſit, and ſits when he ought to riſe; and for theſe reaſons, although he ſhould be free from material blame in other reſpects, he may truly be denominated an intruder.

Another ſpecies of intruders, when they hear of a family's misfortune, ſuch as death, bankruptcy, &c. never fail to rap at the door, with all the apparent precipitation of friendſhip. They mean nothing, it is acknowledged, but civility; but ſurely ſomething more than civility is due to diſtreſs. The ſemblance of ſympathy is aſſumed by the intruder, whilſt the tears of ſorrow ſtream from the eyes of an afflicted family. His duty performed (that is the duty of an intruder) he departs with decent compoſure; but ſuddenly recollecting the recent marriage of Theodore and Aſpaſia, he hurries to their habitation, reaſſumes the ſmiles of complacency, and attunes his tongue to the accents of congratulation. He is received with cool politeneſs, which he attributes entirely to affected delicacy. He aims at wit; but is attended to with indifference; and, even after watches have been frequently looked at, is ignorant enough not to know himſelf to be an intruder.

He goes to the theatre. The tear of pity trickles from the eye of beauty; and the ſigh of ſorrow burſts from the boſom of fortitude. Yet he ſlights the dignity of the one, and diſregards the delicacy of the other. Concentered in himſelf, he looks, that he may be looked at; and ſmiles, that he may be ſmiled upon. He whiſpers to Araminta; but Araminta pays no attention to him. He accoſts Mercutio in ſmiles, but is anſwered in frowns. He bows to Hilario, who,

however volatile, has too much ſenſe to return the compliment. At length the intruder retires in diſguſt, wondering, that little attention ſhould be paid (except between the acts) to any body, but actors and actreſſes.

But although this intruder, with many others who reſemble him, deſerves a mixture of contempt and ridicule, there is another who too often excites horror, but may ultimately conduct to happineſs. His viſits, if properly received, muſt alleviate anguiſh, and promote delight; reconcile us to the ills of life, and further us on our road to happineſs. He is either our tormentor, or comforter; our good, or our bad angel. Poſſeſſed of his approbation, we experience eaſe, even in toil; and our tranſient ſufferings muſt conduce to happineſs, if we adhere to his dictates.—But who is this intruder? it may be aſked. —I will endeavour to deſcribe him.

When Mira reclines her head on her pillow, after having attended to the ſtrains of flattery for many hours, this intruder tells her, that vanity may yet conduct her to woe. The gay Jocundus ſtarts at the horrid admonition of this intruder, reviews his life with horror, and for a moment feels real contrition. At the table of luxury, Apicius attempts to ſilence the clamour of this monitor, over the bowl of feſtivity. He feels approaching maladies, but wonders he ſhould be interrupted in his pleaſures by ſo unwelcome a gueſt.

But why ſhould I enlarge on this ſubject? ſince it muſt now be obvious to almoſt every reader, that the intruder, which I have in part deſcribed, is—CONSCIENCE.

S. W. Y.

Philadelphia.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

TO THE EDITOR.

SIR,

I SIT down to write on one of the moſt delicate ſubjects which I ever attempted to touch upon, yet I truſt this feeble eſſay will induce others to improve on my ſlender beginning, and to diſplay, in more glowing colours than I can command, the dignity of a family, hitherto not ſufficiently regarded.

Sirnames, it is univerſally acknowledged, may be traced with ſome degree of accuracy; occupation has beſtowed ſome of them, on which I ſhall not attempt to enlarge. Others have been derived from bodily imperfections, ſymmetry, or ſtrength; and not a few muſt be aſcribed to popular approbation. Yet it muſt be conceded, that the *roots* of many of thoſe which now flouriſh, cannot be fully diſcovered; and this circumſtance, which has from time immemorial puzzled the antiquarian, muſt be attributed to corrupted orthography, and undefined etymology.

It is amazing, that through the various revolutions of language, ſuch traces ſhould ſtill appear, as, aided occaſionally by ingenuity, guide the genealogiſt through the mazes of conjecture, involved in

the miſts of antiquity. There is not a herald in Europe, poſſeſſed of any ſhare of reputation, who may not, if well rewarded for his deep reſearches, aſcribe an illuſtrious deſcent to the verieſt muck-worm in mind, that ever bore the human ſhape, or diſgraced the human character. It is a notorious truth, that he who can purchaſe a ſplendid equipage, can always command an illuſtrious coat of arms. Herein is diſplayed the conſummate acuteneſs of thoſe artiſts, or, if you pleaſe, thoſe men of ſcience. By inferences, often ſpecious; and by deductions, not altogether devoid of the appearance of truth, they give to the aſpiring man of property, a claim to hereditary dignity, which, in leſs than fifty years, by general acquieſcence, will be allowed to be real, and will deſcend to his ennobled offſpring.

But, there is a family, which now exiſts, and will probably endure as long as the world continues, that ſeems to counteract the principles univerſally known to actuate others. They have relinquiſhed their family name, and aſſumed a variety of others, leſs ancient than their own, and conſequently leſs honourable in the opinion of many. I mean the *Cobweb* family, whoſe modeſty ſhall not prevent me from reſtoring them to their true dignity.

Mr. *Dapperwit*, whoſe converſation is graced with that ſlimſineſs, which renders his company neceſſary to many polite circles, is undoubtedly a *Cobweb*; and henceforth, by virtue of my authority, I enjoin, that he be acknowledged as ſuch, by his numerous admirers.

The right of Mr. *Drawler* to the honours which ought to be paid to this family, is undeniable. Who, that has once heard him, and paid the ſlighteſt attention to his diſcourſe, will withhold from the extreme delicacy of his ideas and language, the encomiums which they juſtly merit? Let him therefore be ranked with the family of the *Cobwebs*, as a moſt worthy member and relation.

Mr. *Flutterwell* is alſo another diſtinguiſhed member of this reſpectable race. His happy addreſs; his poliſhed manners; his taſte, exhibited in his apparel; the vivacity of his mind; thoſe undeſcribable graces, which charm the ears and eyes of modern refinement—all theſe perfections, I ſay, derived from nature, and improved by education—have ſeated him on the throne of faſhion. We therefore muſt affirm, that Mr. *Flutterwell* is an illuſtrious COBWEB.

Who has not heard that placid flow of eloquence, which diſtinguiſhes Mr. *Drowſy* from his aſſociates at the bar? How ingeniouſly does he ſpin the neateſt threads of argument, almoſt inviſible to common eyes! Proceed, thou ornament of juriſprudence, and exert thoſe talents, which have ever diſtinguiſhed the *Cobweb* family.

I might deſcribe many other characters, highly deſerving of public notice and applauſe; and may, perhaps, exhibit them hereafter. I have ſaid nothing, as yet, of thoſe ladies, who are deſcended from the *Cobwebs*; theſe I have reſerved for another letter.

Yours, *&c.*

A GENEALOGIST.

On the STYLE *of* Dr. SAMUEL JOHNSON.

(Concluded from page 240.*)*

DIFFERENCE of thoughts," Dr. Johnson says, "will produce difference of language: he that thinks with more extent than another, will want words of larger meaning; he that thinks with more subtility will seek terms of more nice discrimination." In this argument there is certainly some degree of weight, and the exact appropriation and perspicuity of Johnson's words in some measure confirm it. But that language, which he does not admit to have sunk beneath Milton, would surely have been sufficient to have supported him; and, as he himself observes; "though an art cannot be taught without its proper terms, yet it is not always necessary to teach the art: in morality it is one thing to discuss the niceties of the casuist, and another to direct the practice of common life." Let the nature of periodical publications determine, which should be more properly the object of the author. But he is not reduced to the alternative: if the testimony of many English authors of eminence, confirmed experimentally by their own practice, is to be relied on, exactness of thought is not necessarily at variance with familiar expression; and if this union was not impossible, would not some endeavour to effect it have deserved the attention of Johnson? Of Johnson, who, while his dictionary proves such an accurate and copious knowledge of our received words, as could not have failed of accomplishing the patriotic task, however arduous, gives in his other works the strongest reasons to lament, that his prejudices in favour of a vicious and affected style should have prevented his undertaking it.

But this fault is surely committed without excuse, in every case where the language furnishes a received word adequate to the distinct communication of the idea; and that many such have innocently incurred Doctor Johnson's displeasure, must be abundantly evident to every reader. A page of his writings, compared with one of any of our English authors on the same subject, will furnish many instances, which cannot be accounted for by attention to harmony of sound, or distinctness of signification; instances, to be ascribed merely to that wantonness of habit which, after quoting Congreve's declaration, that "he wrote the Old Bachelor to amuse himself in his recovery from a fit of sickness," thinks proper, in a few lines after, to explain in Johnson's words, by saying, "the Old Bachelor was written in the langnor of convalescence." It would seem that the aunt of Bellaria, who gives the writings of the Bambler to her niece for her perusal, and promises to tell her the meaning of any word she should not understand, has undertaken a task, which the author himself suspects to be not unnecessary, and the reader has reason to apprehend she will scarcely be able to accomplish.

Johnson says indeed, he has rarely admitted any word, not authorized by former writers; but where are we to seek authorities for "resuscitation, orbity, volant, fatuity, divaricate, asinine, narcotic, vulnerary, empyreumatic, papilionaceous," and innumerable others of

the same stamp, which abound in and disgrace his pages? For "obtund, disruption, sentory or panoply," all occurring in the short compass of a single essay in the Rambler? Or for "cremation, horticulture, germination and decussation," within a few pages in his Life of Browne? They may be found, perhaps, in the works of former writers, but they make no part of the English language. They are the illegitimate offspring of learning by vanity; adopted indeed, but not naturalized, and though used, yet not authorized: for if use can sufficiently authorize, there is no description of improper words, which can be condemned. Technical words may be defended from Dryden and Milton, obsolete from Shakespeare, vulgar from Swift and Butler. Johnson's fault lies in this, that he has made such frequent use of remote and abstruse words of Latin original, that his meaning often becomes unintelligible to readers not possessed of a considerable degree of learning; and whether these words were now first made by him, or, having been made by others, had been hitherto denied admittance into the current language, is a matter of perfect indifference.

It must be allowed, that these terms are restrained by our author, to such precision, that they cannot often resign their places to others more familiar, without some injury to the sense. But such is the copiousness of our language, that there are few ideas on ordinary subjects, which an attentive examination will find incommunicable in its ordinary words. Though we may not have a term to denote the existence of a quality in the abstract, we may perhaps find one to denote it in the concrete; and even though there may be none to express any mode of its existence, there may readily occur one to express its direct negation. It is the business of the writer who wishes to be understood, to try all possible variations of the grammatical structure of his sentence, to see if there be not some which may possibly make known his thought in familiar words. But that this was not the practice of Johnson, his compositions and his celebrated fluency afford the strongest evidence. He seems to have followed the first impulse of his mind in the structure of his sentence, and when he found in his progress no English word at hand, to occupy the predetermined place, it was easy to supply the deficiency by calling in a Latin one.

Of this overbearing prejudice, which thus subdued a strongly rational understanding, and misled a judgment eminently critical, it may not be useless to enquire the reasons. To the first principle of these, no man can be a stranger who has so read the works of Johnson as to have formed a just notion of the peculiar genius of the author. Possessed of the most penetrating acuteness and resolute precision of thought, he delights to employ himself in discriminating what common inaccuracy had confounded, and in separating what the grossness of vulgar conception had united. A judgment, thus employed (as he would perhaps himself describe it) in subtilizing distinctions, and associating concrete qualities to the state of individual existence, naturally called for language the most determinate, for words of the most abstract significations. Of these common speech could furnish him with but a scanty supply. Familiar words are usually either the

names of things actually ſubſiſting, or of qualities denoted adjectively, by reference to thoſe ſubſtantives to which they belong: beſides, common uſe gives to familiar words ſuch a latitude of meaning, that there are few which it does not admit in a variety of acceptations. Johnſon, unwilling to ſubmit to this inconvenience, which, in every country, to avoid a multiplicity of terms, had been acquieſced in, ſought out thoſe remote and abſtruſe Latin derivatives, which, as they had for the moſt part hitherto been uſed but once, were as yet appropriated to one ſignification excluſively.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

HISTORY *of* FLAVIA; *or the* EFFECTS *of an* INJUDICIOUS EDUCATION.

IF Flavia had been taught the dictates of ſincerity in her nonage, ſhe would have eſcaped the ſneers of contempt from ſome, the contumely of reproach from others, and diſregard from the reſpectable part of the ſociety of which ſhe is a member.

How, reader! ſhall I enter on the taſk of deſcribing diſſimulation! Small and almoſt imperceptible is her beginning. Naturally endowed with candour, the cry of the infant is fully underſtood by the tender parent, or the intelligent nurſe. But to expreſs pain, by the voice, was prohibited to Flavia. The ſmalleſt degree of vociferation, however excited by pain, was interdicted. She was not huſhed by the voice of blandiſhment, but reduced to ſilence by the dread of bodily hurt. That the neceſſities of her frame were attended to, as well as inſtinct could ſuggeſt to buſtling ignorance, I readily allow. But where was the ſmile of complacency, or the glance of compaſſion! She was clad in the richeſt ſtyle of infantine faſhion; and, if the child was well dreſſed and apparently healthy, the mother was duly complimented, and the nurſe not a little applauded. To candour ever a ſtranger, ſhe was taught to ſuppreſs or diſguiſe thoſe paſſions, which are always natural, and often amiable, in children. She was inſtructed to ſmile, and to frown. Education anticipated duties, which a few years would have rendered both decent and neceſſary. She endeavoured to courteſy, before ſhe could walk without aſſiſtance; and was taught to utter compliments, before ſhe was competently endowed with the powers of ſpeech.

All domeſtic matters were kept ſecret from her, thoſe alone excepted which were ſuitable to her age. The ſervants were reprimanded in her preſence, without reſerve. Her parents expreſſed their peeviſhneſs and reſentment to each other, or their acquaintance, without reflecting that ſhe was attentive to their diſcourſe. Thus the ſeeds of diſcontent were ſown in her mind, and their fruits have been conſpicuous throughout her life. To read at an early age, would, in the opinion of her father, have injured her eye ſight; and her mother reflected, that needle-work might produce a bending in her neck,

which would prove injurious to the symmetry of her person.——Unhappy Flavia! who can reflect on your education, without imputing blame to your parents?——Who can consider your progress through life, without severely animadverting on your own conduct?

Behold her an heiress.——Bereft of her parents in her fifteenth year, she displays all the levity of extreme youth, and all the loftiness of premature womanhood. The voice of truth becomes a stranger to her ears, and by degrees she banishes candour from her lips. The object of flattery, she is soon initiated in the mysteries of insincerity; and can allow no merit to those who do not concede the palm of superiority to her. The graces of nature, improved by decent art, she rejects with scorn; and at length adhering to art alone, disdains those requisites which nature had bestowed. Her admirers, many of whom were worthy of esteem, were used with disdain. Incapable of affection, founded on reciprocal regard, she consulted not her own heart, but an insidious friend, who, literally speaking, sold her to an avaricious wretch, who, for many years, asserted the arrogant claims of a husband, without allowing her the acknowledged rights of a wife.

Still the disciple of artifice and dissimulation, she simpered, and she flaunted; she rambled and coquetted, thinking either to promote regard or excite jealousy in her husband. But she was disappointed in both. He viewed her disposition in its true light, and ascribed to levity alone her aberrations from strict propriety. But let it not be supposed, that I aim at excusing his conduct. He had gained his object, which was her property, and readily brought his mind to endure the sneers of wit, and the frowns of malevolence.

Unloving, and unloved, for twenty-five years they protracted existence in the connubial state. But a fever now hurried him from the stage of life. Every degree of medical assistance was afforded him, since decency required it. But the sigh of sympathy was not heard, and the tear of affection was a stranger to the cheek of Flavia. The debt due to custom, discharged in due season, she now, at the age of forty-five, prepares to rush once more into the shining scenes of fashionable life. The marks, impressed on her countenance, by the rigid hand of time, begin apparently to vanish; and, all her sufferings in the married state forgotten or despised, she relapses into levity, with the assumed giddiness of a girl in her fifteenth year. Venerable age is disgusted at her presence; youth ridicules her affected graces; and it is probable, (such is her folly, and so great is her profusion) that poverty and contempt will shortly be the lot of the unhappy Flavia. Her education neglected in her youth, she can derive no comfort from books; and her mind, unharmonized by conversation, is insensible to those blessings which rational society can bestow.

Let my fair readers duly reflect on her situation, and treasure in their minds, that the levity of the coquette at twenty, is frequently punished in the desponding dowager,——even beyond her grand climacteric.

HORATIO.

OBSERVATIONS *on what is called* BALANCE *of* TRADE.

By the COUNT DE BRUHL.

A NATION whose property increases by commerce, enjoys what is called a balance: according to most authors, this balance is a certain indication of a lucrative commerce, as well as the exact measure of its utility: this, however, is an error.

To be convinced of this, let us reflect a moment on the nature and the course of trade. There is no country on this habitable earth that enjoys within itself every production; bountiful nature, in compliance with the inclination of mankind for society, has distributed its gifts with so much wisdom, that countries the most distant from each other, may be mutually useful, by means of exchanging the different objects of their mutual wants; for these exchanges, the soul of commerce, are susceptible of an infinite variety.

In reality, if every country produced only articles of the first necessity, however abundant these might be, there would exist as little commerce, as if every one was amply provided with every object of their wants; it is then only a diversity in the excess of productions which can supply materials for trade.

Thus two countries will mutually assist each other, without either gaining an advantage over the other, if the culture and the sale of the different productions, which form the foundations of their commerce, afford to each the means of subsistence to an equal number of inhabitants; such also will be the situation of two nations who reciprocally supply each other with artificial productions, if the fabrication of the works they exchange employs in each an equal number of workmen.

But will there still be an equal advantage if the value of the labour which the articles exchanged amounts to on both sides is not equal? Certainly not. The country whose trade employs the greatest number of people will reap the greatest advantage, and her advantage is always in proportion to the superior number of industrious people she employs.

Now hence arise three possible situations, either the balance of trade does not incline to either side, or one side gains, or, on the other hand, loses. In which of these three cases will this balance mark the true profit of the side which gains?

If any one doubts of the existence of the latter case, let him recal to his mind the example of an agricultural people, and trading only with the excess of her own provisions. The balance which this commerce yields must act evidently in a contrary manner to the advantage gained by those nations who make use of her superabundant provisions. Thus a nominal balance of commerce is but a deceitful evidence of its degree of utility. The true profit of every branch of commerce consists in the number of industrious people whose subsistence it procures, and it is only in the single situation where a favourable balance is combined with this advantage, the most solid and

desirable of all, that it can be considered as a certain sign of the prosperity of a commercial people.

To this also we must ever attend, if we would estimate the publick advantages of any branch of commerce; yet the enlightened author of the Eloge of Mr. Colbert estimates the profit in proportion to the smallness of the labour required, an error into which he may have fallen, by not distinguishing the gain of the merchant or adventurer from the profit to the state. Now nothing is so different, for the profits of the trader are always in proportion to the excess of the selling price, over that of the cost, while the national profit depends solely on the superior number of industrious men which any branch of commerce supports. I do not know if it would not even be better to distinguish between the advantage and the profits, by applying the word advantage to a certain number of men which any branch of commerce provides subsistence for, and the word profit to the balance of industrious inhabitants. It will not, perhaps, be useless to elucidate this fundamental principle, bythe following example.

England exports yearly to Portugal to the amount of £.750,000 sterling, in different kinds of merchandize, the produce of her manufactures, for which Portugal gives in exchange the value of £.250,000 in wine, fruit, &c. and the rest in Brasil gold. The English merchandize which is annually sent to Portugal may be considered as sufficicient to maintain and subsist about 30,000 of the subjects of Great Britain. I do not insist on the exactness of this calculation; if it does not vary much from the truth, as I flatter myself it does not, it will serve the use I mean to make of it,

Let us suppose an alteration of affairs in a few years. Suppose Portugal should lose Brasil, that her inhabitants should become manufacturers, and keep to themselves the produce of English industry. Let us suppose, also, that England should discover a mine of gold in one of her provinces, from whence, by the labour of ten thousand miners, she will draw sufficient to provide herself, as before, with Portuguese productions, and half a million surplus, to supply the place of an equal sum, which, before this strange revolution, was the amount of the balance of her trade with Portugal. In this new order of things, neither the consumptions of Portuguese productions, nor the profits she drew from her former commerce with this kingdom, will suffer the least diminution; but England will employ twenty thousand workmen the less, and will consequently sustain a loss of an equal number of useful inhabitants.

The same principle furnishes us also with the means of estimating the real political value of every sort of manufactures, for since, with respect to society, the motives of their establishment ought to be with a view of procuring a sure and easy subsistence to the workmen who are employed about them. and to enlarge the consumption of the productions of agriculture, it necessarily follows that the manufactures which are framed from domestic materials are of greater utility than those which are made from raw materials of foreign growth, and that the manufacturers of articles of common and general use are to be preferred to those of finer works, which are not capable of such an

extenſive ſale. Thus the utility of every manufacture is always in proportion to thedegree of certainty attending the diſpoſal of it, and to the number of induſtrious men who draw their ſubſiſtence therefrom.

UTILITY *of preparing* SEED-OATS *with* PLASTER *of* PARIS.

To SAMUEL POWEL *Eſq. Preſident of the Philadelphia Agricultural Society.*

LETTER I.

SIR,

PERMIT me through you to lay before the Agricultural Society, the reſult of the following little experiment, ſo far as I have as yet been able to aſcertain it.

Late in the month of April laſt, having a piece of ground in the vicinity of the borough of Lancaſter, prepared to be ſown with oats, which I ſuppoſed would take ſixteen buſhels of ſeed, the evening before it was to be ſown, I had eight buſhels put into a trough, and covered with water. The next morning the water was drawn off, and the oats laid in a heap to drain, for a ſhort time, ſay half an hour; then Plaſter of Paris in powder was thrown on, by ſmall quantities at a time, and mixed with the oats, till they acquired a ſufficient degree of dryneſs to be ſown evenly; in this proceſs one buſhel of the Plaſter was conſumed: the ſeed thus prepared, and dry ſeed from the ſame original heap, were ſown on alternate lands throughout the field. The whole came up together, and in due time, and no difference was viſible for ſeven or eight days. From that time forward the diſtinction became very evident; the oats on the lands ſown with the prepared ſeed were much more luxuriant and of a deeper green, until they began to ripen—On the ſecond inſtant they were cut, being then perfectly ripe, while thoſe on the lands ſown with the unprepared ſeed were yet green, the heads much ſmaller, and promiſing in every reſpect a worſe crop.

On the eighth I left home. They were then unfit to cut, and appeared as if they would not be ripe for five or ſix days after—To the facts above ſtated, many of my neighbours are witneſs.

I mean to have the oats, produced from the prepared and unprepared ſeeds, threſhed ſeparately, to aſcertain with preciſion the difference in the quantity and quality of the produce, which ſhall be communicated to the ſociety, ſo ſoon as conveniently may be.

I have the honour to be,

SIR,

your obedient,

humble ſervant,

EDWARD HAND.

Philad. Auguſt 17th, 1790.

LETTER II.

Lancaſter, March 14th. 1791.

SIR,

IN Auguſt laſt, if I recollect right, I troubled you to communicate to the Agricultural Society the reſult of an experiment I made, the preceding April, by preparing ſeed-oats with Plaſter of Paris, ſo far as the ſame could then be aſcertained. Having ſince determined the difference of the produce from the prepared and unprepared ſeeds, I beg leave to lay it before the ſociety—The produce of the eight buſhels of prepared ſeed was one hundred and twenty-two buſhels and about a peck; of the like quantity of unprepared ſeed, ninety-ſix buſhels, the former yielding an increaſe of fifteen and a quarter for one, or thirty and a half buſhels to the acre; the latter only twelve for one or twenty-four buſhels to the acre. The produce of the prepared ſeed weighed thirty-three and a half pounds the buſhel, that of the unprepared only thirty-two and a quarter pounds,—ſo that for about five-ſhillings, the expence of a buſhel of Plaſter of Paris, I gained twenty-ſix buſhels of oats; and by allowing for the increaſed weight, one and a quarter pound a buſhel, on one hundred and twenty-two buſhels, I may fairly add four and a half buſhels more, making in the whole thirty and a half buſhels.

I am,
SIR,
with much reſpect,
your obedient
humble ſervant.
EDWARD HAND.

Publiſhed by Order of the Society.
SAMUEL POWEL GRIFFITTS, *Secretary.*

HISTORICAL ANECDOTE.

THE Counteſs of Coningſmark was, for many years, the favourite miſtreſs of Auguſtus III. king of Poland, during which time ſhe became the mother of that military phenomenon, Maurice Count Saxe.—She afterwards retired to a convent, where ſhe ſtill retained the king's confidence, and was conſulted on all ſecrets of ſtate.——Upon a particular emergency, while Charles the XII. was the terror of the North, Auguſtus prevailed on the Counteſs to leave her ſolitude, and go as his ambaſſadreſs to the Swede, to negociate a treaty, which required her peculiar addreſs and abilities, the end of which was to conciliate Charles, and ſecure his friendſhip.—Charles, who was at that time preſſing the intereſt oppoſite to Auguſtus, knew immediately the intent of the embaſſy, and having a diſlike to the Counteſs, whom he conſidered as one of his renegade ſubjects, refuſed to admit her into his preſence.—She frequently

requeſted an audience, and as conſtantly was denied.—However, after having paſſed a long time at Stockholm, ſhe one day met the king by chance on horſeback, in a very narrow ſtreet—She inſtantly threw herſelf out of her chariot upon her knees, and entreated him to hear her; but the moment he diſcovered her to be the counteſs, he wheeled his horſe round, and galloped off with the greateſt precipitation.

The counteſs now finding it in vain to make any further attempts, returned to Poland, where ſhe conſoled herſelf, that though her embaſſy had proved fruitleſs, yet ſhe could boaſt of having done what no prince or potentate had been able to do,—*She had made the king of Sweden fly before her.*

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

HISTORY *of the* AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

(Continued from page 234.)

1776. HAVING already given an account of the failure of the Britiſh, in their attempt to penetrate into the colonies, by the way of Canada; and of a ſimilar want of ſucceſs, in their ſouthern expedition; we come now to the third, and principal object they had in view; namely, to take poſſeſſion of New-York, with a powerful army, and to make that city the center of their operations. No ſituation could be more favourable, for the motions of either the fleet or the army. Hoſtilities could be carried on, with equal ſpeed and convenience, either in Connecticut or the Jerſeys, or in the interior parts of New-York. The ſubjugation of the firſt would open the way to Maſſachuſetts; of the ſecond to Pennſylvania; and of the third to the country between them and Canada. By theſe means they hoped to cut off the communication between the northern and ſouthern colonies, and to form a junction with the forces commanded by general Carleton. Being acceſſible by ſea, in almoſt every part, poſſeſſion of it, they doubted not, would be eaſily obtained; while the ſuperiority of their marine force would effectually ſecure them from every danger of attack. Much alſo was expected from the co-operation of thoſe who were attached to the cauſe of Britain, who were very numerous in the city and province of New-York, and waited only for a favourable opportunity to take an active part, under the royal ſtandard. From theſe arrangements, and the powerful force to be employed, the miniſtry were not without hopes, that this ſingle campaign might decide the fate of America.—The number of the troops engaged in the three expeditions was 55,000 well diſciplined, well officered, and well appointed men. Of theſe, upwards of 30,000, under the command of general Howe, and his brother admiral lord Howe, were deſtined for the New-York expedition. From the time that the Britiſh had evacuated Boſton, and gone to Halifax, in the month of March, general Waſhington uſed every exertion to

put New-York in a state of defence. Early in April, he fixed his head-quarters at that city; and erected fortifications in various parts of its vicinity, wherever they could be most serviceable, in annoying the enemy, and retarding their progress into the adjacent country, should they succeed in their attempts to possess themselves of this place. His force, however, was by no means adequate to the defence of such extensive works, against a powerful enemy. Congress, in the month of June, resolved to raise a body of troops, of ten thousand men, to be in constant service till the first day of the ensuing December. These were called a flying camp, and were raised in Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Delaware. Congress, at the same time, called for a body of 13,800 militia, from Massachusetts, Connecticut, New-York, and New-Jersey; but the whole of these were not procured, and such as were, could not be brought to submit to proper discipline. —A disposition which was too generally evinced by the militia throughout the war, and which rendered them unworthy of being confided in, in times of difficulty and danger.

General Washington was much embarrassed, by a multiplicity of urgent applications for troops, for arms, and for ammunition. Not only every colony, but almost every sea-port town, was apprehensive of a visit from the British. Massachusetts and Rhode-Island were particularly pressing in their demands for assistance. Had the commander in chief complied with these numerous applications, his weak force, and deficient stock of arms and ammunition, would have been so divided and subdivided as to be rendered inadequate to the defence of any one place. To prevent such a consequence, a decided conduct became absolutely necessary.

At this dangerous season, the convention of New-York acted in a very patriotic and spirited manner, notwithstanding the number of disaffected persons in that state.—They resolved that all persons residing within the state of New-York, and claiming protection from its laws, owed it allegiance; and that any such person, levying war against the state, or being an adherent to the king of Great Britain, should be deemed guilty of treason, and suffer death. They further resolved, that a body of militia should immediately be drawn out for the public defence, to be continued in service till the end of the year; and that a committee should be appointed to enquire into the state of affairs in King's county, the inhabitants of which, it was said, had refused to oppose the enemy. In case of the authenticity of this report, authority was given, to disarm and secure the disaffected persons, to remove or destroy the stock of grain, and, if necessary, to lay the whole of the country waste.

General Howe, having long waited in vain, at Halifax, for his brother, and the expected reinforcements, became at length impatient of further delay, and, apprehensive lest the summer should be suffered to pass away without any thing being effected. He therefore sailed with the same force he had brought from Boston, and anchored off Sandy-Hook on the 25th of June. Lord Howe arrived at Halifax, shortly after his brother's departure, and immediately followed and formed a junction with him near Staten-Island, of which place they took possession.

General Waſhington's army was, at this time, rather below 9000 men, 2000 of whom were wholly deſtitute of arms, and nearly the ſame number provided with arms that were ſo bad as to be ſcarcely fit for uſe. He had nevertheleſs fortified every part of New-York iſland, and the moſt expoſed parts of Long-Iſland, in ſuch a manner as to render them capable of reſiſting a conſiderable force.

The two Howes, beſide their military command, were appointed commiſſioners for reſtoring peace to the colonies. They therefore ſent a circular letter to ſeveral of thoſe who had lately been royal governors in America, informing them of their powers to grant pardons, &c. and incloſing a declaration, which they deſired might be made public.

The chief intention of the miniſtry in the appointment of commiſſioners, was evidently to divide the Americans; and it was in concurrence with this deſign, that the commiſſioners wiſhed their declaration to be circulated among the people. Congreſs, ſo far from attempting to ſuppreſs it, ordered it to be publiſhed in the newſpapers, that the people might be informed of the terms with which the inſidious court of Great Britain had endeavoured to amuſe and diſarm them; and that all might now be convinced, that on their valour alone reſted the liberties of their country.

In the mean time, a letter was ſent by lord Howe, directed to George Waſhington, Eſq., which the general refuſed to receive, as not being directed to him with the title due to his ſtation. In his letter to congreſs, on this ſubject, he ſaid, "I would not on any occaſion ſacrifice eſſentials to punctilio; but in this inſtance, I deemed it a duty to my country and appointment, to inſiſt on that reſpect, which, in any other than a public view, I would willingly have waved." His conduct was applauded by congreſs, who, in a public reſolution, directed that none of their officers ſhould in future receive letters or meſſages, on public buſineſs, that were not addreſſed to them in the characters they ſeverally ſuſtained.

To obviate this difficulty, adjutant-general Patterſon was ſent by general Howe, with a letter directed to "George Waſhington, &c. &c. &c." On being admitted to an interview, he expreſſed much concern, on account of the difficulties which had ariſen from the ſuperſcription of the letter, aſſured the general, that it was not intended to undervalue his rank; and hoped that the *et ceteras* would remove all obſtructions to the propoſed correſpondence. The general replied, that the *et ceteras*, although they might imply every thing, might alſo imply any thing; and that he ſhould decline receiving any letter relating to public affairs, the direction of which did not contain a deſignation of his rank and office. It was obſerved, by the adjutant, in the courſe of the converſation, that the commiſſioners were entruſted with extenſive powers; that they were anxious to bring about a reconciliation; and that he hoped this viſit would be conſidered as a firſt ſtep towards it. He received, for anſwer, that it appeared they had only the power of granting pardons; and that the Americans, who were engaged in defence of their juſt rights, having committed no offence, ſtood in need of no pardon.—Shortly after this conference,

general Washington received a letter from Howe, respecting prisoners, which was addressed in due form.

The attempts of the British, by their manifestoes and declarations, to detach from the Americans those who were not hearty in pursuit of independence, induced congress to adopt a similar policy, with respect to the foreign troops engaged in the British service. The following resolve was therefore circulated among them. "Resolved, that these states will receive all such foreigners as shall leave the armies of his Britannic majesty in America, and shall choose to become members of these states; and they shall be protected in the free exercise of their respective religions, and be invested with the rights, privileges, and immunities of natives, as established by the laws of these states; and moreover, that this congress will provide for every such person, fifty acres of unappropriated lands, in some of these states, to be held by him and his heirs, as absolute property."

It ought to have been mentioned, when treating of the declaration of independence, that, when congress were in the height of their debates on that awful measure, Howe arrived off Sandy-Hook; that congress were apprised of his arrival; and yet so far were they from being intimidated by such a powerful force, that their firmness was not shaken in the least—on the contrary, they proceeded with the utmost eagerness, and though threatened by dangers which they had not the immediate power of repelling, embraced that critical moment, to publish to the world their intention, boldly to assert their rights, and the independence of their country, at the hazard of their lives and fortunes. And it may well be doubted, whether another opportunity of embracing so bold a measure would have offered, had they neglected to seize this moment of suspense, when many were wavering, when nothing less could have called forth the decided exertions of all descriptions of men, and when this measure only could have procured them foreign aid, without which they must have been engaged in a very unequal, perhaps eventually, an unsuccessful contest. It was a bold, but necessary measure. The effects it produced, in rousing and animating the people, were astonishing. At New-York, independence was solemnly proclaimed, amidst the formidable appearances with which that place was surrounded. Nay, such was the general defiance of danger, that the British arms, and a picture of George III. were publicly destroyed.

Notwithstanding the efforts which were made to prevent the passage of the British vessels up the North-River, the American redoubts were passed, without much damage, by two ships of war and their tenders, which sailed 25 miles, and took their station opposite to Tarry-town. General Washington provided some fire-ships, two of which were sent up the North-River, after the British vessels, in a dark night. One of the tenders was burnt; and the others soon after took the advantage of a favourable wind and tide, and a very heavy rain, to rejoin the fleet. This they effected, without much injury, though they were annoyed by a continual fire from the American forts.

The month of August was considerably advanced before the British forces were collected in sufficient strength for opening the campaign.

They were by this time joined by Sir Peter Parker and general Clinton, with the ſquadron and forces from South-Carolina; and alſo by ſome regiments from Florida and the Weſt-Indies. About one half of the Heſſians had arrived; and as the others were not ſhortly expected, it was reſolved to make an attempt on Long-Iſland, as being more practicable than New-York, and abounding with thoſe ſupplies, which were neceſſary to the ſupport of ſo large a body of men.

The Britiſh landed, without oppoſition, between two ſmall villages, Utrecht and Graveſend, on the neareſt ſhore to Staten-Iſland. The American works extended acroſs a ſmall peninſula, on the oppoſite ſide of the iſland, where general Sullivan, the principal in command, was encamped. Here he was ſeparated from the Britiſh, by a ridge of hills, about ſix miles in length, beginning at the eaſt ſide of the narrows, and terminating near Jamaica. Acroſs theſe heights are three roads, on each of which were poſted 800 men, a force fully adequate to their defence. Beſides theſe, there is no other paſſage from the ſouth ſide of the hills, where the Britiſh lay, to the American lines, a paſſage round the eaſterly end of the hills to Jamaica excepted.

Aug. 26. General de Heiſter, with a body of Heſſians, took poſt at Flatbuſh, near one of the paſſes acroſs the heights; and in the night, the main body of the Britiſh army, under general Clinton, marched to gain the road leading round the eaſterly end of the hills to Jamaica. He arrived near the road before day; and one of his parties fell in with a patrol of American officers, whom they made priſoners, ſo that the intelligence of their approach was not known till day-light, on the firſt appearance of which general Clinton advanced, and took poſſeſſion of the road, where it paſſed the heights. In the mean time, general Grant advanced along the coaſt, by one of the roads, which croſſed the ridge near the narrows. The guard fled immediately at his approach, and the paſs was left open to the Britiſh. A few of the guards were afterwards rallied by general Parſons, on a riſing ground, about two miles from the American lines, and were able to keep the enemy in play, till lord Stirling arrived with 1500 men, and took poſſeſſion of a hill in front of general Grant.

27. Early in the morning, an attack was made by general de Heiſter, with his Heſſians, from Flatbuſh; and an engagement at the ſame time took place between general Grant and lord Stirling. Both engagements were well ſupported by both ſides, for a conſiderable length of time. The Americans, who were engaged with general de Heiſter, now received intelligence, that general Clinton had paſſed the heights, and was approaching to attack them in the rear. A retreat was immediately attempted, but the Americans were intercepted by Clinton, who again drove them back till they were met by the Heſſians, from whom they once more experienced a ſevere attack. They were alternately chaſed and intercepted, between Clinton and de Heiſter, inſomuch that their utter deſtruction ſeemed inevitable; ſome of the regiments, however, found means to make their eſcape to the camp, while a number periſhed in the attempt. In the mean time, the right wing, under lord Stirling, conſiſting of col. Miles's two battalions, col. Atlee's, col. Smallwood's, and col. Hatch's regiments, diſplayed great bravery, in the engagement with general

Grant, and maintained their ground from eight in the morning till two in the afternoon. They did not obtain information of the defeat of the other part of the army, or of the Britiſh having effected a paſſage acroſs the heights, till their retreat was intercepted by a body of the enemy, who had that morning traverſed the whole extent of country from the other end of the ridge, where they croſſed, and were now poſted in the rear of lord Stirling's detachment. General Parſons, with a ſmall party, eſcaped, by forcing their way through the enemy s lines, and getting into the woods. Many threw themſelves into a deep marſh, where ſome were drowned, and others periſhed in the mud, but a conſiderable number eſcaped by this way to the lines, though continually harraſſed and thinned in their courſe, by the fire of the purſuers.

The nature and variety of the ground, occaſioned a continuance of ſmall engagements, purſuits, and ſlaughter, for many hours. The loſs of the Americans was great. Beſides a conſiderable number killed in the engagement, and drowned in the ſwamp, upwards of 1000 were taken priſoners, among whom were general Sullivan, lord Stirling, and about eighty officers of inferior rank.

There ſeems to have been great miſmanagement on the part of the Americans, in the whole of this diſaſtrous buſineſs. Why, it might be aſked, when pains were taken to guard the paſſes which led directly acroſs the heights, was a circuitous one left open to the enemy?—Or why was not another patrol ſent out, to diſcover and give notice of the enemy's movements, when it was found that the one employed for that purpoſe, did not return? The very circumſtance of their not returning, ought to have excited ſuſpicion that they were taken, and conſequently, that the Britiſh were not far off.—To ſuffer them to effect a paſſage was bad; but to permit them to do this unobſerved, was worſe. Had the troops, that were engaged with de Heiſter and Grant, known that the enemy were approaching, to attack them in the rear, they would either have been in readineſs to receive them, or they would have been enabled to make good a timely retreat. The ſuperiority of diſciplined, to raw troops, was never more fatally experienced by the Americans, than in this defeat.

(To be continued.)

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

CURSORY THOUGHTS *on* POETRY; *Ancient and Modern.*

THE glowing language of true poetry muſt be admired by thoſe who are poſſeſſed of taſte and ſentiment, when nature is its baſis. Art is by no means excluded; but nature muſt predominate. Without her aſſiſtance we wander in the dark, and may follow an *ignis fatuus* inſtead of a real luminary. What then is nature, as far as the human mind is concerned in this queſtion? I will endeavour to deſcribe her. She reſembles a queen, inveſted with all the enſigns of authority. But the paſſions are her miniſters of ſtate: they ſometimes con-

duct her to happineſs; and as often involve her in woes. Her mind perverted by obtruſive opinion, and her ſteps led aſtray from the paths of ſimplicity, ſhe, together with her true advocates, are, from a complication of circumſtances, totally eſtranged from that ſyſtem, which reaſon and providence deſigned for the good of man.—But I revert to my ſubject, which is an elucidation of the benefits, which have ariſen, and may ſtill reſult from poetry.

Properly to direct the human faculties, was certainly the immediate object of this ſublime, beautiful, and uſeful art. We are ſufficiently informed, that in the earlieſt ages morality was inculcated by bards. They civilized the world; and, if they occaſionally founded the trumpet of war, inſtead of adhering to the ſtrains of virtue and humanity, their error muſt be aſcribed to patriotiſm, that petty virtue, if a virtue it can be called, which confines the ſocial affections within narrow limits, and, together with ambition, has led to wars innumerable. So circumſcribed were the boundaries of improvement, at the period to which I allude, that a petty union of individuals; a diſtrict; a town; a village—could, by ſudden incurſions, perpetrate ſuch maſſacres, as even Indians might bluſh at. Hence the genius of the poet was reſtricted to local and narrow exigencies; and his verſe bore the political complexion of the country of which he was a citizen. If to theſe truths, which hiſtory will evince, we ſuperadd the effects of perſonal affections and perſonal animoſity, raging at a period, which, however dignified by genius, was certainly deficient in civilization, we will be enabled to account for that ſeeming eccentricity of character, which, whilſt it illuminated Homer, that painter of nature, reflected no ſmall portion of diſgrace on his country.

Let us purſue this divine art (as it has been called by thoſe who were far from being enthuſiaſts) to other eras; and we ſhall find, that ſcience and morality have been conveyed to us through the medium of verſe. That the leader of the Hebrews was a poet, is undeniable. He embelliſhes religion with all the ſublimity of imagery, and all the graces of diction. Every prophet reſounded his predictions in ſublime verſe. Thus the ſong of Moſes was a prototype of the elegant pſalms of David, and the ſublime ſtrains of Iſaiah. It may be aſſerted, that the great Author of the ſyſtem which we profeſs, never addreſſed his hearers through the medium of poetical diction; but I beg leave to deny the aſſertion. His parables (whilſt we conſider him as a man) evince the fertility of his fancy, without that rythmus, which many too haſtily deem eſſential to poetry.

After adducing this example, is there any neceſſity for enlarging on a Fenelon, a Ramſay, or a Hervey? Great as the poetical genius of theſe and others muſt be acknowledged to be, I do not heſitate to ſay, that Barclay, particularly in his addreſs to Charles the ſecond, is an elegant and ſublime poet, as well as a philanthropiſt, and a chriſtian.

We muſt therefore conclude, that meaſure or verſification is but one vehicle of poetry; that it frequently ſoars to heaven on the wings of virtue and ſublimity; and that its principal object is to communicate inſtruction, by imparting ſolemn delight. Yet let it not be den-

ed, that it may alſo conduce to rational pleaſure in every department of life, and is as capable of innocently amuſing the fancy, as of improving the mind. R. G.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SIR,

ABOUT the years 1768 and 1769, a number of gentlemen of abilities and character, were warm in their endeavours to introduce the culture of wine and ſilk into the corn countries of America. The writer of the following treatiſe was ſtruck with apprehenſions of the evil tendency of their deſign: yet, from a deference to thoſe characters, he only, in converſation, dropt hints of his apprehenſions, until the winter of 1769, whilſt confined to his room by an illneſs, when he amuſed himſelf in ſcribbling off his ſentiments on this ſubject. The manuſcript was thrown aſide until the winter of 1775, when thoſe to whom he ſhewed it expreſſed their wiſh that it might be publiſhed. Diffidence, in a great meaſure, checked him in gratifying thoſe wiſhes; for he printed off ſo few copies that it could ſcarcely be called a publication. This was in February, 1776. They were delivered to gentlemen, who were thought to be judges of the ſubject, and of the propriety of publiſhing at large, ſentiments ſo contrary to the opinion of perſons of ſuch character and influence, on a well meant, and not unpopular deſign. To renew in print his treatiſe of "*Neceſſaries being the beſt product of land*, and the *beſt ſtaple of commerce*," together with the quotations which are meant to ſupport the poſition, and to expoſe the articles of ſilk and wine, as being improper for thoſe purpoſes, the preſent eſſay, with ſome alterations of the firſt copy, is now offered for publication in your miſcellany. The reader will be pleaſed to attend to its being an argument uſed in 1769, whilſt America was a province to Britain. America is now an independent nation; but the principle ſtill applies to her, as well as when ſhe was a province, and it ever will apply to nations, to provinces, and to individuals.

Yours, &c.

The AUTHOR.

An ESSAY *intended to ſhew that* NECESSARIES *are the beſt Productions of Land, and the* BEST STAPLE *of Commerce; and that to introduce or extend the raiſing Worms and Vines, for making* Silk *and* Wine *for* Sale, *would be attended with Danger to the Independency and Happineſs of the People.*

THE following thoughts have occurred on the preſent ſpur of the deſign (anno 1769) to introduce into America the culture of wine and ſilk, as ſtaple commodities for exportation. It is a queſtion which involves in it the future hapineſs of America.

Should the deſign ſucceed, thoſe articles may for a while give conſiderable profit to individuals: provided the hand of power (anno 1769) ſhall not, by impoſts, or in ſome other way, burden it. To-

bacco and other articles of American land-produce are already heavily charged with duties in England. We have no aſſurance that wine and ſilk would not be burthened; and if we had, it might be a queſtion, how far thoſe who have recently committed breaches of faith againſt America, are entitled to her confidence, in a matter of ſo great importance as the parting with what is eſſential to her being.

The firſt eſſential in life is *bread*. Whenever we ſhall ſurrender that—throw away the ſickle in exchange for the pruning knife, and ſilk-reel for the making of wine and ſilk for our taſk-maſters, that they may more readily bedeck and beſot themſelves, and in the end, through our pinching wants, which muſt follow, govern us with a bit of bread, then may they tax at pleaſure, and command like true muſſulmen. We ſhould have but little of ſpirits to claim, much leſs to ſupport conſtitutional rights, and it would be as ridiculous for us to talk of them as if we were meagre Spaniſh or Italian wine-makers, who with their bunnel and huſks of grapes, are juſt enabled to drudge through a dark, dull, ſlaviſh life. Unfortunate brethren, who have been thus deluded and debaſed by the arts of deſpots!

Being from ſuch a ſurrender reduced to want bread, how could our dejected minds contradict or diſobey the moſt oppreſſive mandates of a Grand Vizier? I would ſuppoſe that, with ſilk and wine, we have, like the poor peaſants of South Europe, made ſome bread: but our labour and attention being diverted more eſpecially to the purpoſe of raiſing luxuries, which can neither ſufficiently feed nor clothe us, we have, alas! only aimed at a ſcanty ſtock of grain, barely for our reſpective country-family conſumption, and falling a little ſhort in that, become miſerably dependent on ſtrangers for the *ſurpluſage of their neceſſaries* of life.* Theſe we are to purchaſe with our wine and ſilk, which they are under no neceſſity of buying, or they may chooſe to get of others, when ſo diſpoſed by ſtarts of ill humour towards us; whilſt, from our ſtarving condition, we are neceſſitated not only to buy their bread, and give their price, but to ſell our articles of luxury, the product of our novel employment, to them, and only to them, at their poor offer, when they may be pleaſed to call for them. Our people, who ſhall then reſide in the poor remains of once flouriſhing towns, at all times, and thoſe in the country, as often as accidents ſhall happen to their ſcanty pitched and neglected crops of corn, muſt gape for the arrival of ſhips with corn from abroad.†

* *Italy* formerly exported corn: but afterwards *became dependant on other countries for its daily bread*. This is aſcribed, by the Roman authors, to a *neglect of tillage*. Collumel. Præf. Sueton. Auguſt. C. 42 &c. ——"The country about Voliſſo, in the iſland of Chio or Sciros in the Archipelago, is very pleaſant ſpacious and *fruitful*: the inhabitants raiſe 5000 weight of ſilk yearly; *with which they pay their tribute*. 'Tis thought they lie under a curſe of being *always deſtitute of bread*". Thev. Trav. to Lev. —The cauſe is no more than the natural conſequence of the neglecting to cultivate a fruitful country, for raiſing the gew-gaw *ſilk*. Had the tribute been raiſed in *wheat*, attention being thereby drawn eſpecially to that object, the curſe of wanting bread would never have fallen on them.

† "We can have no wheat ſo good as our own, altho' as good may be ſhipped from abroad. By a ſea carriage it is liable to many accidents. Some years ſince, in *a ſcarcity in New England*, wheat was imported from England: But from the long weſtward paſſages it became muſty, caſt dark, and did not anſwer." *Dougl.*

View the ſtate of the ſouthern countries of Europe: all *Italy*, *Spain*, *Portugal*, great part of *France*, and till lately, that the cultivation of corn became the firſt object of the attention of her government, the whole of *France*, employing their chief attention and labour, in making ſilk and wine; and although they are fine countries for yielding wheat, and ſome is made in them, yet not aiming at *that article as a ſtaple* of commerce, how conſtantly are they in want of, and how dearly do they pay for bread. Like the country of Voliſſo, they lie under the curſe of wanting bread.*

In the war of 1744, France, in a current of almoſt uninterrupted victories and conqueſts, whilſt her labour and attention were greatly engaged by wine and ſilk, was compelled to make peace, and relinquiſh all her fine proſpects, merely from a great *ſcarcity of corn*, in that kingdom; when her enemies had only the barren Iſland of Cape Breton, to deliver up in exchange; whereas it might well be thought that Madraſs alone, then in her hands, was an equivalent. Ever ſince that ſore-felt ſcarcity, it has been her policy to encourage the raiſing *corn*, preferably to all other produce. Seeing and feeling, as we may preſume, that however great or flouriſhing they may be in other reſpects, *bread being wanting*, *ſubmiſſion muſt follow*. This is an axiom applicable to individuals as well as it is to provinces and nations.†

A celebrated author reckons it bad policy in the Engliſh to obſtruct the uſe of French wines; and would *encourage* the French to *turn their labour* to making more, by the free uſe of them in England: becauſe each new acre of vineyard planted in France in order to ſupply England with wine, would make it requiſite for the French to take the produce of an Engliſh acre ſown in wheat, in order to ſubſiſt themſelves: "and it is evident, (he adds) that we have thereby got the command of the better commodity." Apply this to the lure now hung out to America.‡

* "It may ſeem an odd poſition, ſays Mr. Hume, that the poverty of the *common people* of *France*, *Spain*, and *Italy*, is, in ſome meaſure, owing to the ſuperior riches of the ſoil and happineſs of the climate; and yet there want not many reaſons to juſtify this paradox. The *fine vineyards* of Champaign and Burgundy are cultivated by *peaſants who have ſcarce bread*. But the farmers and graziers are in better circumſtances in thoſe countries".—Hu. Eſſ——"Connecticut is valuable for *grain* and paſture. Any country is happy where the meaner people are *plentifully* and *wholeſomely fed*, and warmly and decently cloathed: thus it is in Connecticut." *Dougl.*

† "After the battle of Blenheim the French army wanted large recruits; and there being a *great ſcarcity of bread in the country*, the French king ordered his public ſtores of bread to be well taken care of. The ſoldiers alone were well fed out of them; whilſt the country people were ſtarving, which occaſioned them, through *neceſſity*, to flock to the army and enliſt in crowds." 2 Hu. Hus. 338. Here then, we have an inſtance of the application to private, as the text is, of a public *ſubmiſſion for want of bread*, both in the ſame country.

‡ Hints and intimations were thrown out from England, of great riches to the Americans, ſhould they employ their attention in making wine and ſilk. Such a ſpirit as *James* I. attempted to infuſe in the minds of the Engliſh nation, was now to be caught by the Americans. But they are employments equally inconſiſtent with the genius of this people as of that; and it is hoped, that nothing will lead this manly

Why would our countrymen, on the other ſide the water, (1769) coax us to drudge in articles on which we may ſtarve? Have we any reaſon to conclude, eſpecially from the preſent Aſiatic temper of their rulers, that there is in the project the leaſt regard to our welfare? Rather may we not ſuppoſe that the benevolent motive is pointed out above by Mr. *Hume*; when what he would that England ſhould do by her implacable enemy France, that ſhe would now do by us; cajole us out of the *command of the better commodity, neceſſary to our exiſtence*, and make it requiſite for us to take the produce of *her acres of wheat* in order to ſubſiſt ourſelves.*

He further ſays, "there are many edicts of the French king, prohibiting the planting new vineyards, and ordering thoſe lately planted to be grubbed up. So ſenſible are they of the *ſuperior value of corn above every other product*."†

Let it not be ſaid, I am ſo extravagant as to contend we ſhould be wholly employed in raiſing corn, and nothing elſe. It would be a

people into ſuch dangerous employments, In the time of the ſame *James*, the ſilk produced in *France* yielded ſuch an immenſe *apparent* profit, that this effeminate king repeatedly recommended it from his throne, to raiſe ſilk-worms in England. But the nation was too wiſe to be influenced to it by the royal recommendation, although it was, perhaps, more earneſtly preſſed by him and his ſervants than any other matter, even by the Judges on the circuits, however foreign to their office: and there could be no doubt of the ſilk-worm thriving as well in England, as in other parts of Europe; as appeared by many experiments, beſides what are recorded by the philoſophical ſociety, in their tranſactions. It was not many years, ere that flattering buſineſs began to decline in France; where it is now quite trifling, compared with its then vaſt extent: For "*the profit being little elſe than apparent*, was not realized" Why did England reject the royal ſcheme for making her rich? Becauſe it was againſt the genius of a free and manly people: an employment fitted only to an effeminate, poor-ſpirited people. In all the world, the making of ſilk flouriſhes the moſt among the people who are in a ſtate of miſerable oppreſſion or ſlavery. The very nature of the employment tends to enervate that hardineſs and vigour which is the general effect of manly labour or employment, and to effeminate the nation which unhappily ſtumbles on it.

* If from their numerous unemployed people of wealth, and their many paupers, together with an aſtoniſhing number of manufacturers, ſeamen, &c. conſumers of bread amongſt them ſhould be in too great proportion to their corn-raiſers, for thoſe to ſupply them and us alſo with wheat produced in England, yet the ſubjecting us to a dependence on them for bread, would be anſwered by foreign wheat purchaſed and ſent to us in their own ſhips. They have been uſed to buy of us to ſend to foreigners, or to ſupply deficiencies at home (for they annually import on a medium, above 250 ſhip-loads of corn more than they export) They are not to be debarred by the price to be given for a ſupply to us, whilſt we *muſt* buy of them at any rate.

† And yet, as Mr. Hume elſewhere obſerves, "a country whoſe ſoil and climate are fitted for vines, will be more populous than one which produces only corn. But then it is to be conſidered, (he adds,) that the people *cannot live upon their vines*. Their *ſubſiſtence* muſt be brought from other places, and conſequently be ſomewhat precarious, as being dependant on thoſe places." Doctor Prieſtly ſeems to think, that the cultivation of *rice* is the moſt favourable to population, as it employs great numbers of people, and hardly any part of the work can be done by horſes: And it is ſaid, that more men, ſtill, may ſubſiſt on *potatoes*. Both *rice* and *potatoes* give bread to the numbers of people employed in producing thoſe articles. But whilſt *rice* is an excellent *ſtaple* for exportation, *potatoes* are unlikely to anſwer that purpoſe.

deſign too unnatural for any legiſlative authority to enforce. My meaning is, that we *drop not, nor even relax from the ſtaff of life:* that we ſo far attend to raiſing within ourſelves, a plenty of heart-chearing ſubſiſtence, as to make luxuries and delicacies ſubſervient to it; and not that any of the *neceſſaries*, our firſt care, ſhould depend *on them.* In chooſing the "*better commodities*" *for ſtaples of trade*, a ſure game is played: We have a moral certainty of our real wants being ever ſupplied by aiming to raiſe all we can of them; and generally, if not at all times, there will be a *ſurpluſage of thoſe neceſſaries to exchange with others for their delicacies and luxuries*, whereby our imaginary or artificial wants would alſo be gratified. Nor am I indifferent to a glaſs of good wine. I admire and am ſeldom without it: But it is obtained in a way in which America ought only to get it; by a commerce and exchange of a *ſurpluſage of neceſſaries* for that delicious juice.*

Should I ever be without ſuch ſurpluſage, which has not yet been the caſe, for my farm yields abundant *corn*, I ſhall then only miſs of, for a while, what I can always do without. Nor yet are my objections carried ſo far, but that thoſe gentlemen who have the opportunity, may make wine for their amuſement or for family uſe, and even ſhould the humour ſo run, for general internal conſumption, though it were better not carried ſo far as this, leſt we ſhould reach to exportation

The queſtion has been repeatedly aſked; "would you have every body raiſe grain?" I have declared it cannot be: a law to that purpoſe would be as ridiculous as inconſiſtent with the various diſpoſitions and humours of man. And yet too much cannot be raiſed. Mountains of grain would *invite a market.* Huſbandmen will in thoſe matters ever chooſe for themſelves. All that I ſay is, let not our legiſlators, or men of influence, miſlead the people by encouragements of any ſort to labour in making, for the principal commodities, articles of luxury; but rather diſſuade them from it: and let the fat farmer be on his guard, nor part with his ſtaff, "the better commodity," for vines and worms†.

* "It is exportation which enriches a nation: and the exportation of *neceſſaries* is preferable to all other."—"There can be no famine in the country which raiſes corn for ſupplying other countries. Famines were not unfrequent in England, previous to her exporting corn."

† It is not thirty years ſince wheat firſt became a conſiderable article of exportation in *Maryland*; nor twenty years ſince *Virginia* firſt attended to it. Its progreſs was from the northward. Before thoſe times, acts of the legiſlators were not unfrequent for prohibiting exportation of Indian corn, from a ſcarcity of it at times to anſwer the wants of the country; and ſo inconſiderable was the quantity of wheat, and it was ſo unuſual to export it, that the prohibitory laws chiefly affected Indian corn, ſcarcely ever touching wheat, as being no object. The people of thoſe countries were poor and ſpiritleſs to what they now are, (1769). Tobacco and Indian corn engroſſed the whole of the attentions of the planters; who conſtantly aimed at making all they could of thoſe two articles. All manure was applied to their tobacco ground; not a ſcrap for graſs or grain. Their cattle indeed were numerous; but, being uſually hide-bound for want of food, they made not much dung. In the ſpring of the year they were apt to looſe their cud; it was called "a bad diſorder," they could not eat; for want of food, many died. Even Indian corn was of but ſecondary conſideration

It is ſaid, ſilk would be moſtly women's work. Be it ſo: but if our wives and daughters were to raiſe as much ſilk as would purchaſe a plenty of cloathing and food, the men in general, after a while, would undoubtedly become idle, and indifferent to other produce. Our lands would be but little, if at all cultivated or improved, and the women performing, within a few weeks, the buſineſs of raiſing worms and ſilk, would become equally lazy and worthleſs for the reſt of the year. By degrees, both the men and the women would be ignorant of huſbandry and houſewifery. Nor could the ſilk more readily purchaſe neceſſaries, and all that we ſhould want, than money would. Suppoſe then a bank of guineas open to all the people of this country, with which they ſhould *buy* what at preſent they labour in the fields to acquire; can any be at a loſs to conceive the wretchedneſs and dependency in which a country of people, ſo circumſtanced, would preſently be plunged! How totally ignorant, the next generation, of agriculture, commerce, and the arts. "The riches and ſafety of a country conſiſt not alone in the number of its inhabitants, but of thoſe *well-employed*." Look to Spain, to new Spain and its rich mines: ſee the crawling, ignorant Spaniard! our oppreſſed, neceſſitous, and unhappy neighbours!

It is probable that, in another century, ſilk, with other fine materials and manufactured goods, will be articles of commerce from the mountains, far from navigation, and not bulky, cheap and heavy articles, becauſe of a long land carriage; whilſt heavy, groſs, and cheap

to tobacco. The planters aimed to raiſe but little, or no more than what might ſuffice themſelves, their negroes, and their live ſtock: more would interfere with their ſtroke at tobacco. So would wheat interfere with wine, and wine with wheat. What of Indian corn they had to ſpare, it was but ſometimes, and ſeldom much, was purchaſed with a little rum; the tobacco by Engliſh or Scotch ſtores of drygoods; or it was ſhipped in dribblets to London on conſignment, the planters receiving returns, according to the cunning of their factors there. But ſo much was ſold in the country to thoſe ſtores, or rather bartered for family neceſſaries, and too often for luxuries, that many planters at the end of the year, had nothing they could call their own, except their lands and utenſils of huſbandry, and not always theſe. They were, truly, delvers, planters for Britain; always in debt, year over year,——begging indulgence,——cringing for more credit, and humbling themſelves before foreign factors and their boys; who, being birds of paſſage, had no feelings for the intereſts of the country; —they rather poiſoned the minds of the planters, from behind their counters, with principles and opinions inimical to American rights, and the planters' own intereſts, in favour of that people—that parliament, which were to ſecond the views of thoſe factors and of the Britiſh merchants, as often as they ſhould call for aid, to facilitate their deſigned advantages over the planters—"our planters" as they were wont to call the Americans. It was a ſtriking inſtance of wheat being the better commodity, that as the cultivation of it advanced amongſt us, the demand, and of courſe the price, increaſed. It is alſo to be obſerved, that whilſt, by the introduction of the culture of wheat, as a great article of exportation, the people of the upper counties, and of the eaſtern ſhore of Maryland, were enjoying plenty and a chearful independency, being emancipated from the tobacco ſtores, thoſe of the lower counties who were tobacco-planters ſtill continued for years cringing mortgagers to the Britiſh merchants. Thus, as the practice of wheat-raiſing travelled ſouthward, the people became daily more improved in their ſentiments, their manners and their independency. Between tobacco and hemp how great the contraſt! tobacco a *luxury*; hemp, a *neceſſary* in univerſal demand! It is in this, and in every ſenſe the planter and politician can conſider it, "the better commodity;"—for private and for public advantage!

articles, will be from the parts of the country convenient to navigation. Grain is too heavy for its price, to bear a coſtly, diſtant land carriage. Let us then, for as yet we have little elſe improved than the maritime country, retain our bulky produce of neceſſaries for the ſtaple of commerce. The more bulky, the better for the country exporting it; becauſe it employs more ſhips, and a more manly labour. Wheat is therefore better than ſilk, as well as for the before mentioned reaſons; tobacco, although a luxury, is better than the luxury furr; rice better than indigo.

Perhaps the chief export produce of the maritime country between Connecticut and James river, will be wheat and flour; of Carolina, Georgia, and the Floridas, rice; North Carolina, naval ſtores; Maſſachuſetts and other parts of New-England, fiſh, cattle, and horſes; the Miſſiſſippi, lumber, iron, and hemp, in ſhips built there, and generally ſold in foreign countries.

As to ſucceſs in the preſent deſign of raiſing ſilk, I hope it will fail in Pennſylvania as in Carolina, notwithſtanding the induſtry uſed to introduce the country people to lend their attention to it. The people of the Carolinas engaged heartily in it, for enriching themſelves in a hurry, by making it for ſale; but in fourteen years of the career, they exported only 251 pounds of raw ſilk; and in the ſame time, 1742 to 1755, inclusive, imported the extravagant quantity of 26781 pounds, wrought for apparel; and nearly as much more mixt with worſted &c. This I take from a ſtate of Carolina, publiſhed in London, in 1761, which ſeems to be from the minutes of a governor of that country. He makes this reflection: "I cannot help expreſſing my ſurpriſe and concern, to find that there are annually imported into this province, conſiderable quantities of Flander's lace, the fineſt Dutch linens, and French cambricks, ſilk, gold and ſilver lace, &c. by which means we are kept in low circumſtances; and though it may have the appearance of being beneficial to commerce for the preſent, yet it retards our increaſe both in people and in wealth.* I have therefore, always endeavoured to correct and reſtrain the vices of extravagance and luxury, by my own example; and by my advice, to inculcate the neceſſity of diligence, induſtry, and frugality: Telling the people that by purſuing theſe maxims, the Dutch from low beginnings, became mighty ſtates; and by contrary meaſures ancient Rome fell into inſignificance."

It is ſaid, in all countries there are ſpots of land too poor for any other cultivation than of the vine.† I can only declare, that I know of no ſuch ſoil in our America. I believe, there is no ſoil ſuitable to the vine that will not produce ſome other more neceſſary plant. You

* Along with induſtry, we may juſtly reckon *frugality* to be a means of making a nation populous. When people have acquired a taſte for expenſive living, they will not take upon them the charge of a family, till they have acquired a fortune ſufficient to maintain it in what they think a genteel manner. While this is the caſe with only a few, the evil is inconſiderable: But the ſame taſte, for expenſive living, will naturally ſpread to the lower ranks of the community, and produce a general diſinclination to matrimony. Prieſt. Lect. Hiſt. 394.

† Land *naturally* poor, but made fruitful by manure and tillage, is meant.

hear of countries rocky and poor, which yield delicious wine. They are wine countries; made ſo by deſpotic influence. The employment is rivetted on the backs of the miſerable inhabitants:—*they want bread.* There are other countries equally portioned with rocks and poverty of ſoil, in as good climates. Thoſe yield no delicious wine—no wine at all; or none for exportation: but they give the neceſſaries of life in ſome quantity: *they have bread!* and enjoy ſome freedom—Conſolation at leaſt. The truth is, where, of lands poor and rocky, you cannot cultivate above one acre; of better, clear of rocks, you can cultivate an hundred acres. In theſe you ſow grain; in the other you are confined from ſowing enough to yield a ſufficiency of corn, for even your little family's ſupport. You then look for a plant which will yield much of ſomething from little land. This ſomething in your country has hitherto been the grape. But the vine, eſpecially in poor ſoil, requires manure; it anſwers not without it: and your acre in vines requires as much labour and attention as the hundred acres in corn. If poor land is the beſt for grapes, it is ſo only with the addition of a good manure and the higheſt cultivation. Manure and cultivate poor ground equally well, and look for a plant of more neceſſary uſe; ſuppoſe hemp, flax, cotton, &c.

But why hazard the happineſs and independency of the country by introducing the vine culture, in order, niggardly, to diſturb the repoſe of a few acres of poor land, when a vaſt continent teems with better! Thouſands, millions of poor land, lie uncultivated in the beſt countries of Europe, and of all the world. In the leſs free and happy countries, even of poliſhed Europe, millions of acres of good land, very improveable, are equally neglected. If ſtill, you are determined to cultivate the grape for making wine, you will chooſe the ſoil beſt adapted to it. If poor land is the beſt, then cultivate it. But why wine?—You want to be doing:—Go then to better lands,—there ſeek the "*better commodity*"—in the *better employment!* and take example by the ſufferings of a great nation!* Your taſte teazes you to attempt the making wine:—indulge it! But as you will anſwer it to the neceſſitous huſbandman, hereafter, lead not one mortal to delve in an employment only tending to bronze the voluptuous, at ſo great a hazard. Rather encourage your neighbours to avoid your taſte, and be happy at home, amidſt a "plenty of wholſome food and decent cloathing," with their placid wives and roſy children; manufacturing family neceſſaries,† within themſelves, and ſparing to foreign countries the ſurpluſage of their *grain*, their *wool* and their *hemp*;—*beſt commodities!*—*eſſentials of domeſtick and national felicity!*

CRESINUS.

* France. See before.

† A great deal might be ſaid of American manufactured goods, for ſale and exportation: but this is beyond the deſign of the preſent treatiſe. For the preſent, it is only wiſhed that they may in the firſt place be of things the *moſt generally uſeful and neceſſary.* Arms and ammunition are certainly eſſential for national defence, againſt ſurprize and force from enemies abroad, and in ſecuring to us all the neceſſaries and comforts before ſpoken of; therefore, and that we may abound in them, and be prompt in defence of our common country, let us give a bounty or other encouragements *on exportation* of thoſe articles made within the ſtates of America, until they ſhall become common articles of exportation.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

The PRUDENT WOMAN, *or the Hiſtory of* ELVIRA.

BUT a few minutes ago, the breath departed from her mortal frame, and Elvira became an inanimate piece of clay. Her children weep around her body, and her huſband expreſſes that ſenſibility, which has ever characterized his life. Her relatives will lament her deceaſe, and humanity will long remember her virtues. Let me explain, and endeavour juſtly to applaud the talents and virtues of Elvira. She was the daughter of a man who oppoſed the torrent of adverſity, with induſtry and fortitude. He ſtruggled for his family with ſucceſs, and experienced from them in his age that affection and duty, which enable us to endure the woes of age, with tranquility and reſignation. Often did he ſnatch her, with parental ardor, from the boſom of her affectionate mother, and as often was ſhe reconveyed to that ſource of nouriſhment and comfort, by maternal ſolicitude.

As ſhe advanced in years, her education was attended to with affection, under the guidance of reaſon. Every degree of inſtruction was beſtowed on her, which the country, in which ſhe was born, could afford. Poſſeſſed of the greateſt endowments, her mind anticipated the leſſons of her teachers; and at the age of fifteen, ſhe was acknowledged to be both beautiful in perſon, and accompliſhed in mind. Pride acknowledged her acquiſitions, and even envy confeſſed the graces and merits of Elvira.

But at this period her trials commenced. In the ſpace of three days ſhe was deprived of both her parents. How calamitous was her ſituation! how extreme was her grief! The truly filial heart alone can entertain an adequate idea of her anguiſh. She had attended them with ſolicitude, during their ſickneſs, wept over their coffins with true piety, and ſtill venerated their memory with the moſt ardent affection. She was not then conſcious, that the public office which was occupied by her father, had hitherto adminiſtered ſupport to the family. Without the levity, but with the hopes, which are natural to youth, ſhe had looked forward to competency, and occaſionally to affluence. From the boſom of an affectionate mother, ſhe had imbibed delicacy; and on the knee of her father, ſhe had been taught to exult in a proſpect of wealth.

How diſtreſſing, for a period, were the feelings of the maiden! As a daughter ſhe endured extreme anguiſh; and found herſelf expoſed to all the difficulties of a dependent ſituation. No relations proffered aſſiſtance; and, after the ſale of her father's effects, (every deduction having been made) her guardian diſcovered, that only fifty pounds remained. He gave her that counſel which was worthy of the office he had undertaken, and received her into his houſe. So ſweet was the diſpoſition, ſo mild was the deportment of Elvira, that ſhe conciliated the eſteem of all with whom ſhe converſed. She was fully convinced of the narrowneſs of her circumſtances; and therefore founded her expectations on propriety of appearance, do-

cility of mind, and rectitude of heart. But ſhortly ſociety was deprived of the amiable conſort of her guardian. In her ſhe a ſecond time loſt a tender mother.

A few weeks after this mournful event her guardian was hurried out of exiſtence by a fever; but before he expired, he requeſted an interview. She attended his ſummons. After a ſhort converſation, he ſent for Hilario, his nephew. As they ſat at his bed-ſide, he thus addreſſed them. "But a few days ago I regularly made a will, which will entitle you to equal ſhares of my property. May that property, in this inſtance, continue undivided." He ſcarcely had ceaſed to ſpeak, before he expired. His meaning was underſtood. After due reſpect had been paid to his memory, Hilario paid his addreſſes to Elvira. She was far from being inſenſible to his merit; and, mindful of the laſt admonition of her guardian, beſtowed her heart and her hand according to the dictates of prudence, and the ſentiments of love.

She continued four years to exhibit an illuſtrious example of conjugal and maternal affection; when the world was deprived of her virtues. Yet her memory muſt be ever revered, eſpecially when we recollect, that ſhe was not abject in adverſity, nor inſolent in proſperity; and that ſhe, in the moſt exemplary manner, diſcharged the duties of the daughter, the wife, the mother, and the chriſtian.

S T.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

IMPARTIAL REVIEW

OF LATE

American Publications.

The PHILADELPHIA DIRECTORY. *By* CLEMENT BIDDLE. *Price 4/6.*

THE editor of this uſeful publication is Marſhal for the diſtrict of Pennſylvania, and has lately been engaged in taking a cenſus of its inhabitants. There is no room, therefore, to doubt, either with reſpect to the completeneſs, or the accuracy of his Directory. It is to be hoped that he will meet with encouragement, ſufficient to enable him to furniſh new editions of the work at ſhort periods; he will then have an opportunity of introducing ſuch corrections and additions, as the frequent removal and rapid increaſe of the inhabitants may render neceſſary.

The following accurate information reſpecting the city of Philadelphia, will, doubtleſs, be very acceptable to ſuch of our readers as have not ſeen this Directory.

The city of Philadelphia, capital of the ſtate of Pennſylvania, and ſeat of government of the united ſtates of North America, lies in lat, 39° 56′ north, and long. 75° weſt from the meridian of London, upon the weſtern bank of the river Delaware, which is here about a mile in breadth, about one hundred and twenty miles from the Atlantic Ocean, by the courſe of the bay and river, and about fifty-five miles from the ſea, in a ſouth-eaſtward direction The Delaware is navigable from the ſea to the falls of Trenton, about thirty miles above the city, by veſſels of conſiderable burthen; and by boats of twenty and thirty tons, and by large rafts in the time of freſhes, near two hundred miles into the ſtate of New-York

It was laid out by William Penn, the firſt proprietary and founder of the province, in the year 1683, and ſettled by a colony from England, which arrived in that and the preceding years, and was increaſed by a conſtant and regular influx of foreigners, to ſo great a degree, that in leſs than a century, and within the life time of the firſt perſon born within it of European parents, it was computed to contain 6,000 houſes and 40,000 inhabitants in the city and ſuburbs.

The ground plot of the city is an oblong ſquare, about one mile north and ſouth, and two miles eaſt and weſt, lying in the narroweſt part of the iſthmus between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, about five miles in a right line above their confluence. The plane is ſo nearly level, except upon the bank of the Delaware, that art and labour were neceſſary to dig common ſewers and water courſes in many places to drain the ſtreets. In the beginning of this ſettlement it was expected, that the fronts on both rivers would be firſt improved for the convenience of trade and navigation, and that the buildings would extend gradually in the rear of each, until they would meet and form one town extending from eaſt to weſt, but experience ſoon convinced the ſettlers that the Delaware front was alone ſufficient for quays and landing places, and that the Schuylkill lay at too great a diſtance to form part of the town on its banks; whence it followed that the town increaſed northward and ſouthward of the original plot, upon the Delaware front, and now occupies a ſpace near three miles in length, north and ſouth, while the buildings in the middle where they are moſt extended, do not reach a mile from the Delaware.

The city has been twice incorporated, and the limits thereof reſtrained to the oblong, originally laid out by William Penn, without including the northern or ſouthern ſuburbs. This plot is interſected by a number of ſtreets at right angles with each other, nine of which run eaſt and weſt from Delaware to Schuylkill, and twenty-three north and ſouth, croſſing the firſt at right angles, forming one hundred and eighty-four ſquares of lots for buildings. The ſtreets running eaſt and weſt are named (except High ſtreet near the middle of the city) from the trees found in the country upon the arrival of the colony; Vine, Saſſafras, Mulberry, High, Cheſnut, Walnut, Spruce, Pine and Cedar ſtreets, and thoſe running north and ſouth, from their numeral order, Front, Second, Third, Fourth, &c. to Broad ſtreet, which is midway between the two rivers.

Of theſe, High ſtreet is 100 feet, Broad ſtreet 113, Mulberry 60, and all the others 50 feet wide. Within the improved parts of the city they are paved, in the middle with pebble ſtones, for carts and carriages, which uſually contains three fifths of the whole breadth, and on each ſide with bricks for foot paſſengers; between the brick and ſtone pavements, are gutters, paved with brick to carry off the water, and the foot-ways are defended from the approach of carriages, by rows of poſts placed without the gutters, at the diſtance of 10 or 12 feet from each other.

Beſides the forementioned main ſtreets, there are many others not originally laid down in the plot, the moſt public of which are Water ſtreet and Dock ſtreet. Water ſtreet is 30 feet wide, running below the bank, at the diſtance of about 40 feet eaſtward from and parallel to Front ſtreet, extending from the north line of the city ſouth-ward to the bridge over the dock, which was formerly a draw-bridge, and retains that name in common uſe, although it was converted into a ſtone arch above thirty years ſince; from the bridge it is 40 feet wide in a right line to Pine ſtreet, and leaves a row of houſes without yards, on the bank, in its whole length, between it and Front ſtreet; ſouthward of Pine ſtreet there is an offset of about 80 feet eaſtward, and the ſtreet from thence to Cedar ſtreet is 45 feet wide and called Penn ſtreet. This ſtreet, in the original plan, was intended only for a cart-way to accommodate the wharves and ſtores to be erected under the bank, and not to riſe more than four feet above it, ſo as to leave the river open to the view from the Weſt ſide of Front ſtreet;

but the inhabitants were ſoon convinced that the ground on both ſtreets was too valuable to be kept unimproved, in any degree, merely for the ſake of a proſpect, and it is now cloſely built with lofty houſes (except a very few vacancies here and there) throughout the whole front on both ſides, and commodious wharves are extended into the river, at which the largeſt ſhips that uſe the port, can lie in ſafety to diſcharge and receive their cargoes, and are defended from the ice in winter by the piers, made of logs, extending into the river, ſunk with ſtone, and filled with earth, ſo as to be equally firm with the main land.

Dock ſtreet is the only crooked ſtreet in the city; beginning at the bridge in Front ſtreet and extending north-weſtward in a ſerpentine track, through two ſquares, acroſs Second and Walnut ſtreets, and terminates at Third ſtreet; another branch of it extends ſouth-weſtward acroſs Spruce ſtreet, and terminates at Second ſtreet. The ground occupied by this ſtreet, and by an open ſpace between it and Spruce ſtreet, below the bridge, was formerly a ſwamp, and was given by William Penn to the corporation for the uſe of the city; it was intended as a place to dig a baſon and docks to ſhelter the ſhipping, but experience proved that ſhips could be defended from the ice by the piers extended into the river, and that the dock could not be kept clean but at an expence far beyond its utility, wherefore it was neglected till it became a nuiſance offenſive to the ſmell and injurious to the health of the inhabitants, and was, by act of Aſſembly, ordered to be arched over and covered with earth, whereby the city has acquired a beautiful ſtreet more than 100 feet in breadth towards the water, and not leſs than 90 feet in the narroweſt part.

The city was firſt incorporated by charter under the great ſeal of the province, in the year 1701: before that period it was called the town of Philadelphia. By this charter William Penn nominated the firſt mayor, recorder, aldermen, and common councilmen, and granted them, among other privileges and franchiſes, that of electing others to ſupply vacancies, and even to increaſe their own number at pleaſure; the public grounds were granted to them by the name of the mayor and commonalty of the city of Philadelphia, but the commonalty had no ſhare in the government or eſtate of the city, the whole body being ſelf-elective, and not accountable to the citizens in any reſpect. It would be difficult to account for ſo extraordinary a charter from the wiſdom of William Penn, did not tradition inform us, that among the firſt ſettlers were a conſiderable number from the city of Briſtol in England, whoſe charter, granted at an early period before the rights of the commonalty were well underſtood, had been familiarized by habit, which induced them to requeſt a ſimilar one; a copy of the Briſtol charter was accordingly procured, and with little variations adopted. It was not long however, before the commonalty began to be diſſatisfied with it, and to make frequent complaints to the aſſembly, of the abuſes that were practiſed under it; many of which appear upon the minutes of the houſe. At an early period after the charter, the legiſlative powers of this corporation were very limited, they could not levy a ſhilling by taxes, for any uſe whatever, and could employ the income of the city eſtates only for the uſe and embelliſhment of the city; wherefore we ſee few monuments raiſed to preſerve the memory of that corporation. Although the firſt men for integrity and abilities to be found in the city, were elected into the office of the body politic, yet ſuch is the nature of unlimited power, not accountable to the people, that it will divert the beſt men from purpoſes, which, before they were inveſted with the power, they would have highly approved. The jealouſy which the citizens entertained of the corporation, pervaded the general aſſembly of the province, and when the lighting, watching, and paving the city, became a deſirable object, the repreſentatives of the freemen would not entruſt the corporation alone, with the power of raiſing or expending the money neceſſary for theſe purpoſes; they could not however caſt ſuch a reflection on the reſpectable characters of which that body was compoſed, as wholly to veſt theſe powers with others: they purſued a middle line, and conſtituted two ſeparate bodies by the names of city wardens and ſtreet commiſſioners, to the former of whom the lighting and watching, and to the latter of whom the paving of the ſtreets was committed; the mayor or recorder and four of the aldermen concurring with each body, in laying the taxes and preſcribing the mode of expending them; thus the city legiſlation for theſe purpoſes became compounded of two branches, the wardens and commiſſioners immediately elected by the people, in the ſame manner as their repreſentatives in aſſembly, conſtituted the democratic, and the mayor and aldermen the ariſtocratic branch. Theſe bodies, thus com-

pounded, conducted the business committed to them, with great harmony, nor is there the least recollection of any disagreement between them; the taxes were laid with equality, collected with moderation, and expended for the real use and improvement of the city: one complaint only, had foundation, which arose from the nature rather than from any abuse of the powers; the number of wardens and street commissioners, was so great, as at very moderate wages, to render those boards too expensive.

For the honour of the late corporation, it ought not be omitted, that the mayor's court was always filled with an able lawyer for the recorder, another for the prosecution of criminal offences; and such was the orderly and upright administration of justice in it, that no court in the province or perhaps any other country exceeded it.

The prejudices under which the old corporation laboured, from its original constitution, were so strong, that upon the revolution, the general assembly declared by an act passed during their first session, "That the powers and jurisdiction hitherto exercised by the mayor, recorder and aldermen of the city of Philadelphia, were not founded on the authority of the people, and are, therefore became null and void." Wherefore by that and several subsequent acts, the powers of the corporation were distributed between the supreme executive council, the city magistrates, and the wardens and street commissioners, who exercised them from the year 1777, to 1789. The prejudices which had no foundation as against corporations in general, but only against the constitution of the late corporation of the city, were however so strong, that it was with difficulty the people could be prevailed on to submit to a new incorporation of the city. The defects in the administration of justice and governing the police of the city at length became so glaring, that they were seen by all classes of people, and their minds prepared for an act of incorporation. The general assembly, in the winter sessions of 1789, favouring the wishes of the citizens, passed an act intitled an act to incorporate the city of Philadelphia, which with a supplement passed in 1790, constitutes the present city charter. By these acts

The common council consists of two branches: fifteen aldermen are chosen by the freeholders to continue in office for seven years; they chuse a recorder from the citizens at large for seven years, and a mayor from their own number for one year. Thirty common council men are chosen by the citizens at large, entitled to vote for representatives in assembly, to continue in office for three years; these were intended to form a balanced government, upon the principle, that the choice by freeholders, and for a longer term, would produce a more select body of aldermen, and that the citizens at large would chuse characters fitter to represent and form the popular branch of city government Eight aldermen and sixteen common council men form a quorum or board, to transact business, at which the mayor or recorder presides; they sit and deliberate together, but no act is legal, unless a majority of the aldermen, a majority of the common council men present, and the mayor or recorder concur.

There is not, perhaps, in the world a more liberal plan of city government, every class of citizens have an opportunity of representing and being represented. The body is sufficiently numerous to contain some of every description, and of every species of talents and information, necessary for deliberation and execution, and yet not so large as to be encumbered with its own weight; it possesses the powers of legislation and taxation in all cases necessary for the well governing and improving the city, except in contradiction to acts of the general assembly; and from the many improvements already introduced, there is reason to hope, that its police will be equal to that of any modern city.

A city court is held by the mayor, recorder, and aldermen four times a year, and holds cognisance of all crimes and misdemeanors committed within the city.

A court of aldermen having cognisance of debts above forty shillings, and not exceeding ten pounds, is held every week begining on Monday morning, and sitting by adjournments until the business of the week is finished.

Each alderman has separate cognisance of debts under forty shillings.

The number of inhabitants within the city and suburbs (including the district of Southwark and the compactly built part of the Northern liberties, which to every purpose but as to their government, are considered as parts of the city) is found by the late census to be 42,400, and the number of houses 6,651, and stores or workshops 415.

The houses for public worship are numerous, the principal of which are as follows;

Of the church of Rome three, of the Proteſtant Epiſcopal church three, of the people called Quakers five, of the Preſbyterians of different ſects ſix, of the Baptiſts one, of the German Lutherans two, of the German Calviniſts one, of the Moravians one, of the Methodiſts two, of the Univerſaliſts one, and of the Hebrews one.

The city is provided with a number of public and private charitable inſtitutions; the principal of which are, the houſe of employment, a large commodious building, where the poor of the city and ſome adjoining townſhips, are ſupported, and employed in coarſe manufactures to aid in defraying their expences, under the care of the overſeers and guardians of the poor, who are a corporate body created for this purpoſe, by an act of aſſembly, with power to lay taxes for its further ſupport:

The Pennſylvania hoſpital, an inſtitution erected at firſt partly by the bounty of the legiſlature, and partly by private ſubſcription: its funds, ariſing moſtly from the latter ſource, are conſiderable, and are under the care of twelve managers, choſen annually by contributors to the amount of ten pounds or more, who are incorporated by act of aſſembly. In this houſe, infane perſons and the friendleſs ſick and wounded, are taken care of and provided with every neceſſary and comfort their ſituation requires, and are attended by ſix of the ableſt phyſicians and ſurgeons, who are annually choſen by the managers, and who chearfully give their time and advice to the patients, for whoſe uſe a well furniſhed ſhop is kept in the houſe, by a ſkilful apothecary, who makes up the medicines preſcribed:

The Quakers alms houſe is ſupported by that ſociety for the uſe of their own poor; it is divided into a number of ſeparate houſes and rooms, for families or ſingle perſons who have fallen into decay: moſt of them contribute by their induſtry towards their own ſupport, but are ſupplied with whatever their induſtry falls ſhort of procuring, by a committee of the ſociety, and live more comfortably than many who, in full health and unhurt by accident, provide for their own ſubſiſtence: there is a conſiderable garden belonging to this houſe, from which the city is ſupplied, at very moderate prices, with every kind of medicinal herbs common to the climate:

A houſe founded by the late Dr. John Kearſley the elder, for the ſupport of twelve elderly widows, of the Proteſtant Epiſcopal communion, in which a number of perſons of that deſcription, who have ſeen better days, are very comfortably and decently provided for:

The diſpenſary, a very uſeful inſtitution, ſupported by voluntary annual ſubſcriptions; it is under the care of twelve managers, choſen annually by the ſubſcribers, who chooſe phyſicians and ſurgeons to attend the ſick and wounded at their own houſes, and keep a large apothecaries ſhop to ſupply medicines; each ſubſcriber paying a guinea annually, has a right to recommend two poor patients at a time, and, to the honour of the faculty, it is mentioned, that the poor thus recommended, are attended gratis, with equal care and tenderneſs with thoſe who are able to pay them, and many thouſands have received the benefit of this inſtitution, who otherwiſe would have languiſhed, or perhaps, periſhed for want of medical aſſiſtance, and by the quackery of pretenders to the healing art:

The humane ſociety for recovering perſons ſuppoſed to be dead, by drowning, eſtabliſhed upon ſimilar principles with thoſe of the ſame name in moſt ſea-ports in Europe; it is under the care of twelve managers, annually choſen by the ſubſcribers; the phyſicians afford their aid to this inſtitution gratis, a number of theſe being appointed for the purpoſe by the managers.

Almoſt every religious ſociety has a fund under proper direction, ſome of which are incorporated for the relief of the widows and children of their clergy, or other diſtreſſed members of their communion.

There are alſo ſocieties formed for the relief of particular deſcriptions of perſons, with funds raiſed by ſubſcriptions, or otherwiſe, for the purpoſe, ſuch as the ſea-captains ſociety, the Delaware pilots ſociety, ſeparate ſocieties for the relief and aſſiſtance of emigrants, and other diſtreſſed perſons, from England, Scotland, Ireland, Germany, &c. ſome of which are incorporated, ſo that there can ſcarce happen an inſtance of individual diſtreſs, for which a mode of advice, aſſiſtance, or relief is not provided without reſort to public begging.

Seminaries of learning are eſtabliſhed upon the moſt enlarged and liberal principles, of which the principal are,

The univerſity of Pennſylvania, founded and endowed by the legiſlature of the ſtate. Profeſſorſhips are eſtabliſhed in all the liberal arts and ſciences, and a com-

plete courſe of education may be purſued here, from the firſt rudiments of literature, to the higheſt branches of ſcience.

The college and academy of Philadelphia, founded by charter, between 30 and 40 years ago, and endowed by generous ſubſcriptions of liberal minded perſons in England, Scotland, Ireland, the Weſt Indies, and many of the late colonies, now united ſtates of America. Though this inſtitution was interrupted in its progreſs for ſeveral years during the late war, yet being re-eſtabliſhed ſince the peace, it has rapidly recovered its former ſtate of proſperity, and to the bench of profeſſors has lately been added one of common and Federal law, which renders it in reality, though not in name, an univerſity. If theſe two inſtitutions were conſolidated, and the learned profeſſors properly diſtributed into the different chairs of lectureſhips, Pennſylvania might boaſt of a ſeminary of learning equal to moſt in the world.

Almoſt every religious ſociety have one or more ſchools under their immediate direction, for the education of their own youth of both ſexes, as well of the rich, who are able to pay, as of the poor, who are taught and provided with books and ſtationary gratis; beſides which, there are a number of private ſchools under the direction of maſters and miſtreſſes, independent of any public body; and there are ſeveral private academies for the inſtruction of young ladies in all the branches of polite literature, ſuitable to the ſex: a particular deſcription of theſe, would be too lengthy for the preſent publication; let it ſuffice, that there is no individual, whole parents or guardians, maſters or miſtreſſes will take the trouble to apply, but will be admitted into ſome one of theſe ſchools, and if they are unable to pay, will be taught gratis; it ought not to be omitted, that there is a ſchool for the Africans of every ſhade or colour, kept under the care and at the expence of the Quakers, into which are admitted gratis, ſlaves as well as free perſons of whatever age of both ſexes, and taught reading, writing, arithmetic, knitting, ſewing and other uſeful female accompliſhments; this ſchool was originally inſtituted by private ſubſcriptions of the ſociety, with a view to prepare that degraded race for a better ſituation in civil life; but the will of the late Anthony Benezet, of benevolent memory, a conſiderable donation from the ſociety in England, and ſome other charitable deviſes, have provided funds adequate to its future ſupport, and it will no longer be burthenſome to individuals.

Sunday ſchools for the inſtruction of children who would otherwiſe ſpend that day in idleneſs or miſchief, have lately been inſtituted, and it is to be hoped will tend to amend the morals and conduct of the riſing generation.

The publick library of Philadelphia is a moſt uſeful inſtitution; it contains near ten thouſand volumes, well ſelected, for the information and improvement of all ranks of the citizens; they are depoſited in an elegant building lately erected, in a modern ſtile, and are acceſſable every day in the week, except Sunday. Here the man of learning may conſult the works of the remoteſt ages, and trace hiſtories, arts and ſciences from their infancy to this preſent ſtate of improvement; and the mechanic, the labourer, the ſtudent or apprentice may be ſupplied with books to improve their minds or amuſe them in their vacant hours at home. The company conſiſts of ſome hundreds of proprietors, incorporated by charter, who pay ten ſhillings annually for the purchaſe of new books and defraying incidental expence; twelve directors are annually choſen, who manage the concerns of the company and keep a correſpondence with Europe, from whence they are regularly ſupplied with new publications of reputation and merit.

The corporation have lately ordered the ſtreets, lanes, and alleys to be marked at every interſection with each other, and the houſes to be numbered.

The city within a few years paſt has experienced a very remarkable revolution in reſpect to the healthineſs of its inhabitants; the bill of mortality proves that the number of deaths has conſiderably decreaſed ſince the year 1783, notwithſtanding the great increaſe of its population; this change in favour of health and life, is aſcribed by phyſicians to the co-operation of the following cauſes. 1ſt. The arching the dock, whereby a very noxiousand offenſive nuiſance was removed. 2d. The cultivation of the lots adjoining and partly ſurrounding the city, whereby another extenſive ſource of putrid exhalations is dried up. 3dly. An increaſed care in cleanſing the ſtreets. 4thly. An increaſe of horticulture, and conſequently greater conſumption of vegetable aliments. 5thly. The inſtitution of the diſpenſary, which has extended medical aid to many hundreds in a year, who either periſhed for want of it, or were ſacrificed by

quacks. 6thly. The more improved state of physic, whence several diseases formerly fatal in most instances are better understood and treated, and therefore more generally cured. And 7thly. From a general diffusion of knowledge among all classes of people from our libraries, our numerous societies, monthly, weekly, and daily publications, whence the people at large are better acquainted than formerly with the means of preserving their health, as may be exemplified in one instance: there was but one death last summer from drinking cold water, whereas some years ago twenty has not been an uncommon number from this single cause.

To the Directory are annexed complete abstracts of the impost, tonnage, and excise duties; a list of the officers of the federal and state governments, &c, &c, &c.

INAUGURAL DISSERTATIONS, *submitted to the examination of the Provost, Trustees, and Medical Professors of the University of Pennsylvania, for the degree of Doctor of Medicine, on the* 12th. *May*, 1791.

IN both the medical schools of Philadelphia, it is required that a candidate, for the degree of Doctor of Medicine, shall publish and defend a thesis, either in the Latin or English language, on some medical subject. The gentlemen whose Inaugural Dissertations are now before us, availing themselves of this privilege of option with respect to language, have all written in that of their country.

We would submit it to the consideration of the gentlemen who superintend our medical schools, whether the rule which requires every candidate, for the highest honours in medicine, to *publish* a thesis, might not be abolished, with advantage. The great objection to this rule is, that it obliges many to become authors, who are but badly qualified for the task; who would gladly be exempted from it, both from a diffidence of their abilities, and because of the unnecessary expence; and who, at a more mature age, have frequently cause to be ashamed of those juvenile performances. Experience shows that the productions of such unfledged authors are not generally reputable to themselves, nor to the medical professors by whom the publication of them is, in some degree, sanctioned. We do not know why theses should be required, as tests of merit, in Medicine, and be dispensed with in the Arts.—At any rate, might not every desirable purpose be fully answered, by merely requiring that a thesis, in *manuscript*, should be submitted for examination, by each candidate; leaving it with the medical faculty, or the candidate himself, to determine whether the Dissertation were worthy of being communicated to the world. But we are encroaching on a province that is not ours——We shall proceed, therefore, to give a concise account of the several theses, beginning with

I. *An* INAUGURAL DISSERTATION *on* UNIVERSAL DROPSY; *by* ELIJAH PERKINS, A. B. *of* CONNECTICUT.

THE want of a due attention to our native language is a great defect in the ſyſtem of education eſtabliſhed in moſt of our ſeminaries of learning. So numerous are the inaccuracies in this performance, that, in point of language, it is beneath criticiſm;—and yet the author appears to have obtained a degree in the Arts, in one of our colleges.—

He fully adopts the theory of Dr. Brown, though he differs from him conſiderably in the method of cure. The effects a preconceived hypotheſis is capable of producing, on a vigourous mind, in deſtroying its perception of the moſt obvious truths, and in making every admitted fact bend to a favourite opinion, was never more ſtrikingly exemplified than in the Brunonian ſyſtem of medicine, which, on account of its ſimplicity, and the apparent harmony of its ſeveral parts, is well calculated to faſcinate the youthful mind; but although it affords many uſeful hints, to the judicious practitioner, we cannot but conſider it as pregnant with danger, in the hands of the inexperienced ſtudent.—

That ſelf-importance, contemptuous treatment of the moſt reſpectable medical characters, and dogmatic manner, which ſo eminently characterize the writings of Dr. Brown, ſeem to have, almoſt uniformly, deſcended to the advocates of his ſyſtem.—Of thoſe qualities our author certainly poſſeſſes an ample ſhare.

Not having been a pupil of Dr. Ruſh, if he attended any of his lectures it muſt have been by particular invitation; he is therefore very cenſurable for having taken the liberty to publiſh what he calls Dr. Ruſh's proximate cauſe of dropſy, merely that he might have an opportunity of diſplaying his own ingenuity and abilities in refuting it. But it appears that in this he has been guilty of a groſs miſrepreſentation, which he has been under the mortifying neceſſity of acknowledging, in a manuſcript note, ſubjoined to his table of *errata*.

II. *On the* CHEMICAL PROPERTIES *of* ATMOSPHERIC AIR; *by* WILLIAM R. COZENS, *of* NEW-JERSEY.

THIS Diſſertation, excepting the introductory and concluding paragraphs, appears to be a copy of an excellent eſſay on air, by Dr. Elmer of New-Jerſey, inſerted in the Columbian Magazine for December 1788; the chemical terms being changed, ſo as to accommodate them to the modern phraſeology of the French chemiſts. Mr. Cozens, however, has perfectly conformed to the uſual practice on theſe occaſions; the evidence of the candidates' acquirements, generally termed *theſes*, conſiſting almoſt always in a tranſcript, or compilation, from previous writers.

☞ A Diſſertation, on *Cholera Morbus*, much more ingenious than either of the above, remains to be taken notice of in our next.

THE

Columbian Parnaſſiad.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

LINES *ſacred to the memory of the* HON. FRANCIS HOPKINSON ESQ. *(Written immediately after returning from the interment of his remains.)*

WIT! *Science! Induſtry!* your powers how vain!
Since here the reliques of the man remain,
(Ah! ſtopt too early in his honoured courſe!)
Who gave to humour truth, to reaſon force.
In him the Patriot's virtues fully ſhone;
He made, Humanity! thy cauſe his own;
Verſed in true learning, and adorned with taſte,
Alike the cloſet and the bench he graced,
Made many a heart with valour's fire, to glow,
And bade the ſtream of juſtice mildly flow.
Whilſt the long train the ſolemn bier attends,
Pleaſed, we behold that virtue ſtill has friends,
And truſt, that all this uſeful truth ſhall hoard,
The men who live reſpected, die deplored.
Scarce to one* ſage our tribute has been paid,
Ere to the grave another is conveyed.
One full of years expired; revered, beloved;
The other, ah! too early is removed.
Yet in our boſoms his deſerts ſhall bloom,
And wit and wiſdom viſit oft his tomb.
Erect the buſt to learning and to worth;
And, genius, call thy various talents forth
The man to praiſe who venerated thee;
Prized by the good, and honoured by the free
Erect the buſt!——but what will that avail?
Envy and folly ſhall in vain aſſail
That name, thoſe talents, which ſuperior riſe,
And, having earth adorned, now grace the ſkies.
Yet let the buſt be raiſed——and ſculpture's art
Due tribute, ſcience, to thy ſon impart.
Youth on the trophy ſhall with rapture gaze,
Soaring to virtue on the wings of praiſe.
Painting! exert thy imitative powers;
Diſplay the ſage reclined in learning's bowers:
Thou mournful muſe! (ſince huſhed is humour's vein)
Pour thy ſad plaint in elegiac ſtrain.
And be this truth upon his marble writ—
He ſhone in virtue, ſcience, taſte, and wit.

E.

* *Doctor Franklin.*

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

An ELEGY, *inſcribed to the memory of the* HON. JUDGE HOPKINSON—L. L. D. *&c, &c, &c.*

THINK not the rich, the haughty, or the gay
Claim from my muſe the elegiac lay;
Flattered by mean dependents, let the proud,
At leaſt in fancy, tower above the crowd:
Uncenſured by my verſe, let wealth aſpire
At pomp, or to his hoarded gold retire;
And let the gay ſtill glitter at the ball;
Term laughter wit, and learning dulneſs call.
A different ſubject now my verſe demands,
And to my mind the ſcene of woe expands.——
A Sage expired!——Philoſophy who knew;
Philoſophy who wiſely practiſed too;
And thouſands to his talents bade ſubmit;——
With Plato's judgment, and with Lucian's wit.

A Sage expired!——who boldly traced in youth
Law through its windings till he graſped bright truth.
Firm, as a patriot; as a judge, revered;
The worthy honoured him; th'unworthy feared.
How often have his accents charmed our ears,
Sweet as the muſick of the heavenly ſpheres!
A Sage expired!——who prized the rights of man,
And blended nature's claims with wiſdom's plan.
The ſteady foe of tyranny confeſſed,
He by true *wit* licentiouſneſs ſuppreſſed.
His happy hand that engine ſtill obeyed,
By which the flames of party were allayed.
A Sage expired!——who weighed the woes of life;
Reproved the child, the huſband, and the wife;
Yet with ſuch art and gentleneſs reproved,
That, though ſome feared his *pen*, the *man* was loved.
True to humanity, to friendſhip true,
Life's paths he trod, with honour ſtill in view:
Honour he gained——but ah! the real ſage,
Whoſe mind was formed with folly to engage,
Morals to guide, and precepts to ſupply,
No bleſſings now expects——beneath the ſky.
Yet ſhall his ſpirit to that power aſcend,
Whoſe cauſe he ever gloried to defend.
What knowledge was withheld from him, whoſe mind
For univerſal ſcience was deſigned?
He charmed the eye, and dignified the heart,
Blending the limniſt's with the poet's art.
Fancy was ever preſent to his mind;
Whilſt truth, wit, muſic, every thought refined.
Be harmony *his* meed, whoſe merits claim
From worldly harmony a laſting fame.
And be this line upon his tomb-ſtone writ——
The friend of virtue—and the friend of wit.
How ſhort the date to human worth allowed!—
Death interpoſes his tremendous cloud;
Snatches the man of merit from our eyes;
We mourn in darkneſs; *he* aſcends the ſkies.
Yet ſhall his virtues ſtill our hearts direct
Genius to prize, and ſcience to reſpect;
Arts to advance—Thus bleſſings ſhall be found,
And thus the name of *Hopkinſon* renowned!

W.

Philadelphia.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SINCERITY; *An Ode;*

COME!——in thy flowing locks and artleſs dreſs,
More beauteous than the poet Venus ſhews;
Thy genuine feelings let thy tongue expreſs,
Since candour in thy boſom ever glows;
Come!——and in open day aſſert thy right
Man to reform, to poliſh, and delight.

She comes!——a blaze of glory decks the ſcene;
Congenial virtues on her ſteps attend;
Graceful her form, her countenance ſerene;
Her great deſign our morals to amend:
On truth's mild brows ſhe fixes honour's crown,
Whilſt vice and folly tremble at her frown.

Falſehood retires, his pallid cheeks declare
The deep remorſe which preys upon his heart;
The gentle ſoother of the good and fair
Tears from his brow the inſidious maſk of art.
That rage is ſhewn, which lurked within his breaſt,
And the deteſted monſter ſtands confeſs'd.

Ah! whence that ſhriek?——It vibrates on my ear,
More loudly than the thunder's awful peal——
But now my boſom is reliev'd from fear,
Since ſcandal is in turn compell'd to feel
Grief and diſtreſs——She ſeems to ſink to hell,
There with congenial fiends condemned to dwell.

Merit ſteps forth; his ready hand is graſped,
By the mild dame, who fondly owns her heir;

Religion in her strict embrace is clasped,
And in her smiles each art and science share.
Genius appears, in native radiance bright,
Hails the blest power, and mingles light with light.

Guide of my youth, to thee I ever bow'd;
Whate'er my follies, still I own'd thy sway:
I scorned the mean, insidious, flattering crowd;
Intent to thee my purest vows to pay.
Sincerity! still o'er my breast preside;
My boast on earth!—to heaven, I trust, my guide!

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

The SMILES *of* COMPLACENCY; *A New Song.*

Addressed to CLARA,

ON thy face since complacency ever should shine,
Why wilt thou, fair Clara, those beauties resign,
Which spring from contentment devoid of all art,
And prove that true happiness flows from the heart?
To laugh, or to sneer, without meaning or sense,
No proof of good humour to worth can dispense;
But to her we true merit, and wisdom assign,
On whose features the *smiles* of *complacency* shine.

To Chloe, the giggler, no praise we allow;
To haughty Olivia we distantly bow;
No husband true happiness ever yet knew,
Who bliss could expect from a flirt or a shrew.
Loud laughter we scorn, and the scold we detest;
True pleasure can only proceed from the breast.
Thus virtue and wisdom in her must combine,
On whose features the *smiles* of *complacency* shine.

Be this admonition impress'd on your heart;
That beautiful nature is priz'd more than art;
That pride's haughty frown will deform every grace,
And turn to a Gorgon's a Venus's face.
An elegant shape and an air we may praise;
But on the fair idol we transiently gaze,
Unless, whilst her heart truth and virtue refine,
On her features the *smiles* of *complacency* shine.

I.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM

HOPE, *or the* DYING CHRISTIAN; *a* POEM.

(Written under the apprehension of approaching dissolution)

DEATH! let me hail thy solemn, sure approach,
The herse preferring to the glittering coach!
Pomp, pride, and vanity now thrown aside,
Thou grave! receive the wretch to woes allied.
Long have I calmly wished from thee relief;
For thou alone canst hush the storm of grief;
And, when the awful conflict shall be o'er,
The solid temper of my mind restore;
Restrain ambition, conquer every care,
And chase those evils, of which man is heir.
Begone, ye passions! whom I long obeyed;
In friendship's garb such syrens are arrayed:
They cause the heart with short delight to glow,
But lead us to th'abyss of shame and woe.
Come then! mild charity, thou child of Heaven!
And, since I hope my faults may be forgiven,
Let me deserve thy blessings to receive,
My friends to value, and my foes forgive.
Life! as thy isthmus awfully I see,
Here death appears, and there eternity.
Therefore to death my body I resign,
Convinced, eternity is surely mine——
But what! or where!—Eternal Parent! hear
My humble voice, and view each trickling tear!
Hurried by youth and passion, I have bowed
To follies, which my reason disavowed.

Duties contemned, which lead to bliss above,
And slighted oft—too oft—thy proffered love.
Yet, whilst I now each vice and folly own,
May I not hope to view thy glorious throne?
There my mind's tumults shall be hushed to rest,
As I repose on Christ's all-gracious breast.
Death! thy sad, solemn summons I obey,
Intent to tread the dark, the dreary way;
I follow thee, and view the glorious skies;
Angels, through nature flying, cheer my eyes:
Celestial music charms from pole to pole,
And heaven is ready to receive my soul.
Racked by corporeal ills and mental care,
For everlasting blessings I prepare;
And let this solemn wish mankind revere:
Though strong their passions, be their hearts sincere!

Philadelphia.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SIR,

THE following elegy was written a few days after the account of the death of the hero whom it celebrates. So that the young *encomiast* did not borrow from any of the *cypress garlands*, which have been so plentifully and meritoriously strewed over the tomb of the amiable *Warren*.

Yours, &c.
LAURA.

To the Memory of GENERAL WARREN, *who fell at the battle of* BUNKER'S HILL, *June 24th.* 1776.

(By a young Lady.)

HE'S gone! great *Warren's* soul from earth is fled!
Warren, alas! is numbered with the dead!
That breast where every patriot virtue glowed;
That form where nature every grace bestowed;
That tongue which bade in *Freedom's* cause combine
Truth, *learning*, *sense*, and *eloquence* divine;
That healing hand which raised the drooping head,
And led pale sickness from her pallid bed,*
Are now no more. All, wrapt in sacred fire,
On *liberty's* exalted *shrine* expire!
While the great spirit that informed the whole,
Warmed every feature, from the active soul
Mounts, midst the flame, to its own native heaven,
Where purest plaudits to his deeds are given.
Methinks I see the solemn pomp ascend;
See every *patriot* soul his shade attend:
Immortal *Hambden* leads the awful band;
And near him *Raleigh*, *Russel*, *Sidney*, stand.
With him each *Roman*, every *Greek*, whose name
Glows high recorded in the lists of fame,
Round *Warren* press, and hail, with glad applause,
This early martyr in fair *Freedom's* cause.
With generous haste the laurel round they twine,
And on his brow they bind the wreath divine.
Oh—glorious fate!——which bids the gloomy grave
Throw wide the gates of triumph to the brave!
Sure, God-like *Warren*, on thy natal hour
Some star propitious shed its brightest power!
By nature's hand, by taste and genius formed,
Thy generous breast with radiant virtue warmed,
Thy mind endued with sense, thy air with grace,
And thy bright virtues glowing on thy face,
Grave wisdom marked thee as her favourite child;
And on thy youth indulgent science smil'd:
Well pleased, she led thee to her sacred bower,
And to thy hands consigned the healing power.
While ever watchful for thy country's weal,
No *arts* could warp, no danger damp thy zeal,
Thy grateful country, to thy merits just,
To thee committed an important trust.
Equal in all, in all alike you shined,——
The *patriot*, *friend*, and *counsellor combined.*
Heaven saw thy virtues to perfection soar,
Till nature failed, and earth could bear no more;

* *General Warren had been a physician.*

Approving saw, and burst the bounds of clay,
Which barred thy passage to the realms of day;
And, that e'en death might to thy fame conspire,
Bade thee on *freedom's* flaming *shrine* expire——
Allowed *thee* once to mingle in the strife;
That thou might'st give thy country e'en *thy life;*
Bad *liberty* and *honour* guard thy grave,
And countless numbers for thy mourners gave.
And dare we then thy sacred triumph mourn,
Or with the tear of grief bedew thy urn?
Illustrious shade! forgive the stream of woe——
Tears not for thee but for our country flow:
We weep our loss; we mourn our hero gone;
We mourn thy God-like deeds, because thou'rt flown.
But oh, from yon bright realm, vouchsafe to bend
On us thy looks, and to our fate attend!
Thy country's *guardian-angel* deign to prove,
And watch around us with thy wonted love:
Thy spirit o'er our councils still preside;
Thy light direct us, and thy genius guide.
Oh! let that spirit glow in every breast,
And be each virtue on their hearts impress!
So shalt thou not alone in glory stand,
But future *Warrens* shall protect our land——
A great, united, and illustrious band.

SYLVIA.

Philadelphia. 1775.

HENRY; *or, the* HERMIT.

OBSCURE, and lonely, in a wood
A rev'rend Hermit grew;
Retir'd from all the cares of life,
Mankind full well he knew.

His hoary head, his lengthen'd beard,
Bespoke a ripen'd age;
Around him throng'd the eager crowd,
To learn instruction sage.

He pitied, wept with each that came,
And each full well he warn'd;
The precepts which his lips dispersed,
His holy life adorn'd.

Scarce had the sun the east bedeckt,
To give mankind his aid,
When 'fore his hospitable door
Appear'd a lovely maid.

"Hail, aged, venerable Sire!"
The blushing fair-one said,
"Welcome, reply'd the rev'rend man,
"To Asem's peaceful shed,

Where meek-ey'd innocence resides,
With all her heav'n-born train;
Where sweet contentment ever dwells,
Nor thirsts for worldly gain.

Mistaken mortals vainly strive
To find in riches ease;
Amid his heaps, the miser's poor,
Without content to please.

Can they secure the joys of health,
Or purchase future bliss;
Or the sharp stings of conscience heal,
For actions done amiss?

The all-corroding tooth of time
The worldling's gold destroys;
But virtue is its own reward,
And endless are its joys.

When guilt the burden'd soul o'ercasts,
Within the conscious breast
The mind its own tribunal rears;
And conscience is its test.

Pierc'd by reflection, soon it bleeds,
And crimson stains the face;
No other witness does it need,
But pleads its own disgrace."

Here ceas'd the sage—and here began
The maid, with care oppress;
Her eye the trickling tear assail'd,
For sorrow heav'd her breast.

"My father lives full many a mile,
A sordid man is he;
But Henry was a gen'rous youth,
Who paid his court to me.

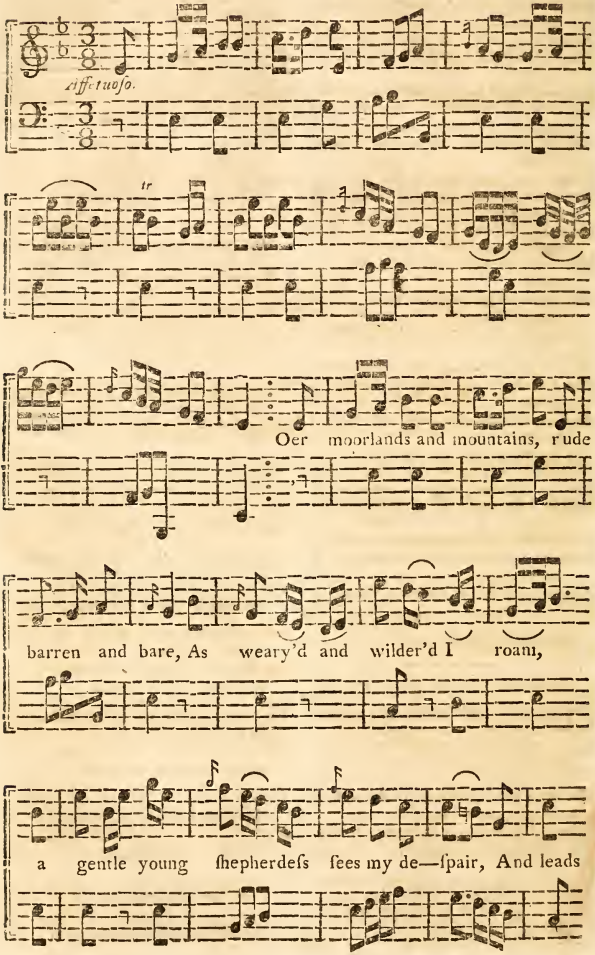
He could not boast of wealth or fame.
Or ancestors renown'd;
For greater virtues, better worth,
Within his heart were found.

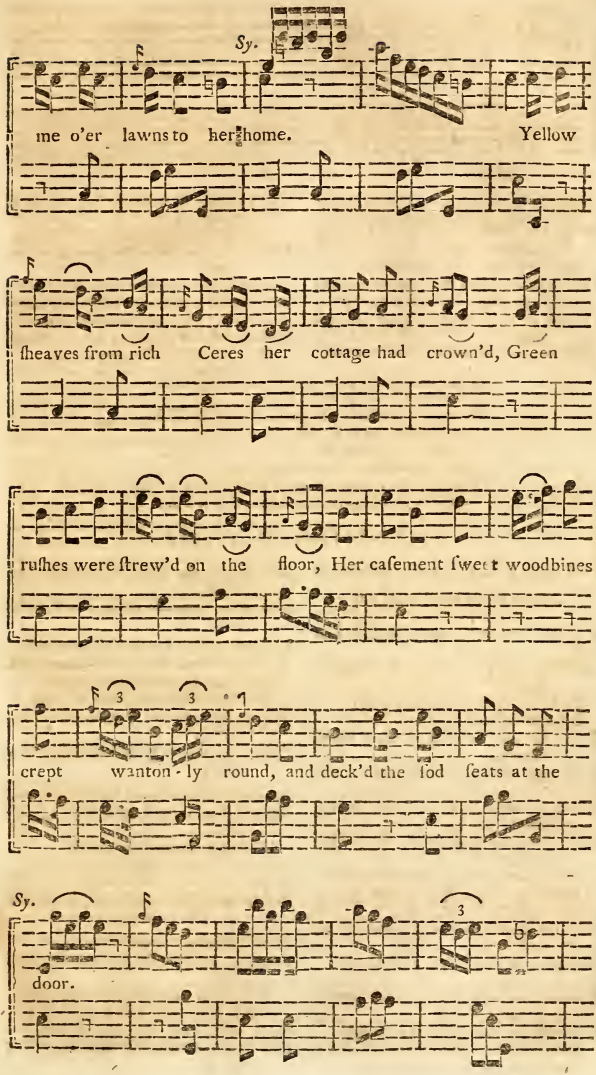
My parent saw; with stern command,
He spurn'd him from his door;
E'er since, forlorn, alone I've roam'd,
And now thy aid implore,"

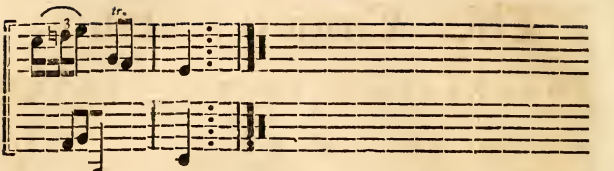
"Behold thy long-lost Henry here,"
The raptur'd hermit cry'd:
The sudden joy o'ercame the fair—
She fainted, drooped, and died.

CONTENT:---*A* PASTORAL.

By MR. CUNNINGHAM.




Sy.
me o'er lawns to her home. Yellow
ſheaves from rich Ceres her cottage had crown'd, Green
ruſhes were ſtrew'd on the floor, Her caſement ſweet woodbines
3
3
crept wanton-ly round, and deck'd the ſod ſeats at the
Sy.
3
door.



We ſat ourſelves down to a cooling repaſt;
Freſh fruits—and ſhe culled me the beſt:
While, thrown from my guard by ſome glances ſhe caſt,
Love ſlyly ſtole into my breaſt.
I told my ſoft wiſhes, ſhe ſweetly replied;
(Ye virgins her voice was divine!)
I've rich ones rejected, and great ones denied,
But take me fond ſhepherd—I'm thine.

Her air was ſo modeſt, her aſpect ſo meek!
So ſimple, yet ſweet were her charms,
I kiſſed the ripe roſes that glowed on her cheek.
And locked the loved maid in my arms.
Now jocund together we tend a few ſheep;
And if by yon prattler the ſtream,
Reclined on her boſom, I ſink into ſleep,
Her image ſtill ſoftens my dream.

Together we range o'er the flow riſing hills,
Delighted with paſtoral views,
Or reſt on the rock whence the ſtreamlet diſtils,
And point out new themes to my muſe.
To pomp or proud titles ſhe ne'er did aſpire,
The damſel's of humble deſcent;
The cottager, *Peace*, is well known for her ſire,
And ſhepherds have named her CONTENT.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

DEFAMATION; *An Ode.*

HENCE, to thy gloomy manſion, *monſter!* fly;
And from thy preſence free the troubled ſky:
To hell, thy native clime, repair;
Diſperſe thy fatal venom there;
There bid the fiends in ſcenes of wrath engage,
To ſcandal adding ſcandal, rage to rage.

Wrath in thine eyes, and fury in thy breaſt,
How many droop on earth, by thee oppreſſed!
Pride, prompt thy influence to obey,
Miſleads the grave, the learned, and gay:
Thy handmaids, vice and ignorance, attend;
And every human frailty is thy friend.

Does wiſdom from the world due homage claim?
That wiſdom 'tis thy object to defame.
With haughty look and ſcowling eye,
Tho' ſilent, truth thou dar'ſt defy;
And ſpread the dark inſidious hint abroad,
E'en in the fraudful ſmile, and ſcornful nod.

Is beauty, graced by chaſtity, admired?
Thy cruel mind, with double fury fired,
That chaſtity dooms to diſgrace,
And blaſts the faireſt form and face.
Bees treaſure all the fragrance of the ſpring,
Uſeful and active, though at times they ſting;

But thou, alas! no ſweets canſt e'er collect;
And, if thou ſeem'ſt ſome beings to reſpect,
'Tis but by contraſt to expoſe,
In vivid colours, *friends* or *foes*.
To malice as thy vows thou dareſt addreſs,
Prompt are thy *thoughts*, thy *words*, thy *pen*, and *preſs*.

Thus *defamation*, we derive from thee
All that may hurt the virtuous, fair, and free.
Compelled vile faction to obey,
Juſtice and order dread thy ſway;
And e'en religion, from her awful throne
Caſt down, beneath thy fatal fangs may groan.

E.

The CHRONICLE.

CONGRESS *of the* UNITED STATES.

HISTORICAL SKETCH *of the Proceedings of* CONGRESS *during their* THIRD SESSION, *commencing on the 6th. December,* 1790, *in the City of* PHILADELPHIA.

(Continued from page 262.)

THE report of the secretary of the treasury, on the subject of raising a revenue from the use of distilled spirits, was accompanied by another, in which he recommended the establishment of a national bank. Convinced that an institution of this kind would conduce very much to the successful administration of the finances, and would be extremely serviceable in the operations connected with the public credit, he had, he said, turned his attention to the devising of such a plan of a public bank, as would be entitled to the confidence, and equal to the exigencies of the public.

In deference to the public opinion, the ultimate arbiter of every measure of government, he thought that, previously to a detail of his plan, a few preliminary observations on the general subject of banks, might not be improper; though the superior wisdom of those to whom they were immediately addressed, might render such observations superfluous, so far as they related to them.

He then proceeded to observe, that banks had been established and patronized among the principal and most enlightened commercial nations—In Italy, Germany, Holland, England, France, and the united states; and that their utility was unanimously acknowledged, both by theorists and men of business, in those countries where their effects had been long experienced. They had rendered important aid to trade and industry; and afforded essential support to government, in the most dangerous and distressing emergencies. Of this we had striking and recent examples in our own country.—Yet, notwithstanding this two-fold evidence, doubts, jealousies, and prejudices had been entertained respecting them; and, though experience was daily lessening these, there were still some by whom they had not been renounced. To place the subject in a just point of view, he therefore entreated the indulgence of the house to a brief comparison of the advantages, with the disadvantages, real or supposed, of such institutions.

The following he stated to be among the principal advantages of a Bank.

I. "The augmentation of the productive or active capital of a country." Gold and silver, when employed as the mere instruments of exchange, had been justly denominated dead stock; but when deposited in banks, they become the basis of a paper circulation, which taking their place, and becoming the representatives of their value, they then acquire life, or, in other words, an active or productive quality. To illustrate this, he observed that money deposited in a merchant's chest, while he waited for a favourable opportunity of employing it, produced nothing; but that if deposited in a bank, or invested in the stock of a bank, it yielded a profit during this interval; to others, if he be a depositor, or to himself, if he be a stockholder: and when any object of speculation offers, the depositor has only to withdraw his money, or the stockholder to sell his stock, or obtain a loan from the bank. Money deposited or invested in a bank is a fund upon which loans to a larger amount can be obtained. It was, he observed, a well established fact, that the amount of paper circulated by a bank in good credit might be much greater than its capital in gold and silver—and that many circumstances concurred to produce this effect. *First.*—Notes issued by the bank were generally received as cash; and, from the confidence of the public, in the credit of the bank, obtained a circulation, for a considerable length of time. *Secondly.*—Loans made by a bank were seldom in cash, or even notes. The borrower

frequently transferred the credit he had obtained, by giving a check or order; and this again underwent a variety of fimilar transfers, the credit circulating from hand to hand, and performing, in every ftage, the office of money, till extinguifhed by a difcount, with fome perfon who had a payment to make to the bank. *Thirdly.*—Large fums of money, he faid, were always depofited in the bank, befides its ftock; and thefe, though liable to be withdrawn at any moment, were found, by experience, to change proprietors fo frequently, without being withdrawn, and when drawn, were fo fpeedily replaced, that they might juftly be called an effective fund, which, added to the ftock, enabled the bank to extend its loans, and to difcharge any occafional demands for coin, in confequence of the returns of its notes.—This ability, however, to circulate more than the actual ftock, muft be preceded by a firm eftablifhment of confidence; to acquire which, upon rational grounds, the excefs of circulation in queftion, muft be bottomed on good fecurity, of fome kind or other. In the plan he was about to propofe, it was intended to add to the capital in coin, an auxiliary capital of a different nature, which would at once anfwer the purpofe of a complete fecurity, and define the extent of the engagements of the bank.

Thus a given fum of bank paper and credit had been found to anfwer the purpofes of trade and induftry, as effectually as an equal fum in gold and filver; fo that by enlarging the means of fucceffully profecuting induftrious and commercial enterprize, banks were nurferies of national wealth. This advantageous confequence of banks was not only clearly deducible in theory—it was fully verified by experience.

II. The next advantage of public banks mentioned by the fecretary, was "Greater facility to the government in procuring pecuniary aids, efpecially in fudden emergencies." This had already been realized amongft ourfelves. The capitals of individuals collected in a bank, and placed under one direction, formed a powerful credit, which it would be the inclination, as it would be the intereft of the bank, to put in motion, in aid of the government, on great emergencies.

III. "The facilitating of the payment of taxes;" and that in two ways. The firft, by enabling thofe who refide near banks to obtain loans, for the punctual payment of duties &c, to the government. This had already, he obferved, been fenfibly felt. But as all could not refide in the vicinity of banks, this advantage of obtaining loans, though conficderable, could operate but partially. In the other way, the advantage would be generally felt. It had been already fhown, that banks increafe the quantity of circulating medium; this circumftance, and the additional quicknefs of circulation, which fuch a medium acquires, conftitute the advantage alluded to. To illuftrate the manner in which national banks increafe the quicknefs of circulation, he ftated the trouble, delay, expence, and rifk of remitting coin from place to place, to anfwer the purpofes of trade; and this muft always be done, when there are no private bills at market, nor bank notes, having a currency at both places. But bank notes, having a currency in both, are much more convenient than gold, and filver; inafmuch as they can be tranfmitted by poft, or any other fpeedy conveyance. In the mean time, the metals, inftead of being unproductive, as they would be during their tranfmiffion from place to place, are actively employed in difcharging their functions; and thus, not only the circulation is quickened, but a greater plenty of money fuitable for the purpofes of bufinefs, is produced. Hence the fecretary inferred, that every induftrious member of the community would be enabled, by the eftablifhment of a bank, to acquire money with much greater facility, whether to pay his taxes or anfwer any other demands.—Having ftated the *principal* advantages of a bank, he declined entering into a detail of others, which might readily be deduced as confequences from thefe; and proceeded to take a view of the moft ferious charges which had at different times been brought againft banks. viz:

1. That they ferve to increafe ufury.
2. That they tend to prevent other kinds of lending.
3. That they furnifh temptations to over-trading.
4. That they afford aid to ignorant adventurers, who difturb the natural, and beneficial courfe of trade.
5. That they give to bankrupts and fraudulent traders a fictitious credit, which enables them to maintain falfe appearances, and to extend their impofitions. And
6. That they have a tendency to banifh gold and filver from the country.

With respect to these disadvantages generally, he was induced to believe, that on a close and candid survey, they would be found, either not to exist, to depend on causes not inherent in the nature of banks, or to be more than counterbalanced by opposite advantages. He then proceeded to a survey of the charges, in the order in which they have been stated.

1 That the punctual payments exacted by banks had sometimes obliged those who adventured both beyond their capital and credit to resort to usurers for aid he did not deny. But the punctuality in payments, which banks had an evident tendency to introduce, was an advantage which would amply compensate for this evil: and would eventually assist in obviating it, by enabling traders to calculate on more punctual supplies as they became due. Besides, usury would be gradually removed by experience; as no man who had felt the mischievous consequences of it, and whose affairs were not in a very desperate situation, would again have recourse to so pernicious an expedient, which always injured the credit of individuals with the bank, whose *interest*, and consequently whose *policy* it would be, to succour the wary and industrious, to refuse credit to the rash and unthrifty, and to discountenance both usurious borrowers and usurious lenders.

It had already been demonstrated that banks always increased the quantity, and quickened the circulation of money. Hence they had an obvious tendency to counteract the progress of usury, which would be increased or diminished according to the proportion which subsisted between the demand for borrowing, and the quantity of money at market.

2. In support of the charge that bank-lending was an impediment to other kinds of lending, it had been said, that by confining the resource of borrowing to a particular class, the rest of the community were left in a more destitute situation, in which they were unavoidably exposed to the extortions of usurers. The profits of bank stock being generally greater than the legal rate of interest, men possessed of money chose to invest it in bank stock, in preference to lending it. To this they had the additional motives of a more prompt command of the capital, and of a more frequent and regular profit, without trouble or perplexity in collecting it.

The fact on which this charge rested, the secretary observed, ought to be qualified by several considerations, before it was admitted; considerations which would be found to derive considerable weight from the situation of things in the united states.——*First.*—Bank-stock would chiefly consist of the funds of men in trade among ourselves, and monied foreigners; the former of whom could not afford to put their money out of their reach for any considerable length of time, by lending it either on personal security or mortgage; and the latter would not be inclined to lend their money, in this way, in a distant country.——*Secondly.*—Many money-lenders, from that cautious disposition which characterizes such men, would rather invest their money in mortgages or real estate, than in the stock of a bank, which they are apt to consider as more precarious security. These considerations would be found to diminish the force of the objection considerably, as to matter of fact.

By placing the subject in another point of view, he answered the objection, in an ingenious and satisfactory manner. The capital of every publick bank must be restricted within a certain limit; and it would be the province of the legislature to fix this limit, so that it should neither be too contracted for the exigencies of business, nor too weak a security for the paper issued by the bank; and, at the same time, to proportion it to the pecuniary resources of the country, in such manner as to ensure and facilitate the completing of the subscriptions. These subscriptions being once filled up, the cause of the objection must necessarily cease; for there would be no longer room for the investment of any additional capital. Hence surpluses of money, accumulated afterwards, would take their natural course; and borrowing would go on, as if there were no such institution. Indeed, it might, with justice, be said, that a publick bank, instead of *diminishing*, would *increase* the means of obtaining money on loan. By furnishing an extraordinary supply for borrowers within its immediate sphere, and by encreasing the active capital of the country, a larger supply would remain for borrowers elsewhere.

The secretary stated the advantages which would arise to the community from foreigners becoming adventurers in the bank.——This would increase the gold and silver of the country. And though a half yearly rent or profit, accruing on the stock, would be drawn back by those adventurers; yet this would, in all probability, be more

than replaced, by the profits arising from the employment of the capital by our own citizens. Part of it also would, in the course of trade, be converted into the produce of our country. It might even prove an incentive to emigration to a country, in which the character of citizen is as easy to be acquired as it is estimable and important. This reasoning the secretary applied to answer another objection, deduced from the same principle. The income resulting to foreigners, from the part of the public stocks owned by them, has been represented as tending to drain the country of its specie. "In this objection, said he, the original investment of the capital, and the constant use of it afterwards, seem both to have have been overlooked."*

3. With regard to the objection, *that banks furnish temptations to over-trading*, it was observed, that this must mean, that banks by affording additional aids to mercantile enterprize, induce the merchant sometimes to adventure beyond the prudent or salutary point;——but this was only an occasional ill, incident to a general good.

"If the abuses of a beneficial thing are to determine its condemnation, there is scarcely a source of public prosperity that will not speedily be closed. In every case, the evil is to be compared with the good; and, in the present case, such a comparison will issue in this—that the new and increased energies derived to commercial enterprize, from the aid of banks, are a source of general profit and advantage, which greatly outweigh the partial ills of the over-trading of a few individuals, at particular times, or of numbers in particular conjunctures"

4 and 5. These two charges the secretary considered together. Both related to the aid sometimes afforded by banks to improper persons; namely ignorant adventurers and fraudulent traders. The supposed ills, though not entirely without foundation, had, notwithstanding, been far less than was pretended; and, in both, the partial disadvantages were connected with extensive benefits.

Experience, guided by interest, would soon lead the bank to decline giving a fictitious credit to improper persons. The directors themselves, being generally selected from the mercantile part of the community, would be well acquainted with the character and circumstances of the different traders who might apply for a credit at the bank. And, in addition to this, the course of the persons' dealings at the bank would exhibit no bad index of their situation. Hence it frequently happened, that banks, by observing the shiftings and artifices of men in desperate or declining circumstances, were the first to announce their approaching downfall to the publick, by withholding that credit to which they were no longer entitled.

If, in spite of every precaution, banks were sometimes betrayed so far as to give a false credit to improper persons, they more frequently enabled honest and industrious men, with little or perhaps no capital, to prosecute business, with advantage to themselves and the community. They also assisted merchants to surmount fortuitous and unforeseen shocks, which might otherwise prove ruinous to them; and enabled others to make head against their misfortunes, till they finally retrieved their affairs.

6. The heaviest charge yet remained to be examined——*That banks tend to banish the gold and silver of the country*——This objection had generally been made, under the impression that paper circulations of any kind, by furnishing a substitute for the specie, promoted its exportation. And, in reply to it, it had been frequently said, that it

* *That the original investment of foreign capital in our funds, and the constant use of it afterwards, should be productive of advantages sufficient to counterbalance the payment of a* reasonable *profit upon it, may be easily conceived; and as far as the secretary's answer goes, it is doubtless well founded. But he seems not to have considered the objection in its full extent; for it will certainly be allowed that foreigners, who have purchased a considerable part of our publick stocks at a depreciated value, draw an* immense profit *upon the money thus invested. Whether the advantages arising from the circulation of this money in our country, are sufficient to enable us to pay so* extraordinary *a rate of interest for it, is not so much the proper question to be decided upon, as this;——namely, whether we might not have it in our power to bring foreign specie into circulation in our country, at a* cheaper rate, *in some other way? We know that foreign loans have been negociated upon terms much more advantageous.——It must be confessed however, that the investment of this money in our funds has been very instrumental in advancing the price of stocks, or in other words, in promoting the public credit; a circumstance productive of important advantages to the community, which may perhaps be sufficient to compensate for the payment of a more than usual rate of interest.——*

was immaterial whether paper or ſpecie were made to ſerve the purpoſe of money; the effect on induſtry, the great ſource of national wealth, would ſtill be the ſame.—An anſwer by no means deſtitute of reaſon, though not entirely ſatisfactory. Certainly, a full circulation, though produced by the aid of a well regulated paper credit, would more than compenſate for the loſs of a part of the ſpecie, if the conſequence of retaining it ſhould be a ſcanty circulation.

But the ſecretary conſidered the poſitive increaſe or decreaſe of the precious metals in a country, in no ſuch indifferent light; theſe conſtituting a ſpecies of the moſt effective wealth—the money of the world—and a commodity univerſally taken in exchange for every other.—His anſwer therefore was of a more concluſive nature; and controverted the fact itſelf.

As a nation which has no mines, muſt obtain the metals from thoſe that have, and this, generally, in exchange for the products of its labour and induſtry, the quantity of thoſe metals it will poſſeſs muſt be regulated by the favourable or unfavourable balance of its trade; and this again muſt depend on the ſtate of its agriculture and manufactures, or the quantity and quality of its labour and induſtry. Hence well conſtituted banks would ſeem rather to favour the increaſe of the precious metals. It had already been ſhewn that they augment the active capital of a country. This generates employment, and gives animation to induſtry and labour; and, by increaſing the products of both, furniſhes more materials for exportation, produces a more favourable balance of trade, and, conſequently, promotes the introduction and increaſe of gold and ſilver.

To this, however, it might be objected, that, bank paper, ſerving as a ſubſtitute for the metals, prevented the loſs of them from being felt, as they otherwiſe would be, in caſe of an unfavourable balance of trade, and thus favoured their exportation; while it prevented, or at leaſt retarded, thoſe economical reforms, which might be neceſſary to rectify this unfavourable balance.——

But it might be obſerved, in reply to theſe two objections, that though true in certain caſes, yet they would not bear an extenſive application. It muſt, indeed, be an extreme caſe, when the urgent demands for ſpecie could only be reſiſted by an abſolute ſcarcity of it. And a ſituation in which national extravagance required a corrective, from poverty or diſtreſs, could only be the reſult of very rare and extraordinary cauſes. Wiſe and well executed laws, ſecurity of property, and an inviolable maintenance of contracts, would, in the general courſe of things, produce that degree of economy which the means of a people required. Perhaps this wrong balance of trade would be more effectually prevented by whatever promoted general induſtry, than by any ſavings upon a ſmall ſcale. But banks, by furniſhing an adequate medium, gave a ſpring to induſtry, which muſt otherwiſe ſtagnate, counteracting the ſtricteſt economy, and prolonging the continuance of an unfavourable balance of trade.

The ſecretary obſerved further, on this head, that the comparitive quantity of gold and ſilver, in different countries, depended on an infinite variety of cauſes, all of which ought to be known, in order to judge, whether the exiſtence or non-exiſtence of paper-currencies had any ſhare in fixing thoſe relative proportions of the metals—— "The maſs and value of the productions of the labour and induſtry of each country compared with its wants—the nature of its eſtabliſhments abroad—the kind of wars in which it is uſually engaged—the relations it bears to the countries which are the original poſſeſſors of thoſe metals—the privileges it enjoys in their trade—theſe, and a number of other circumſtances, are all to be taken into the account, and render the inveſtigation too complex to juſtify any reliance on the vague and general ſurmiſes, that have been hitherto hazarded on the point."—Thus far on the ſubject of banks promoting the *permanent* expulſion and diminution of the metals.

As to the *temporary* exportation of ſpecie, for particular purpoſes, it would certainly be facilitated, by banks; but it ought not to be inferred from this, that theſe eſtabliſhments, ſo friendly to trade and induſtry, had a general tendency to leſſen the quantity of the precious metals. Theſe temporary exportations, for the purpoſes of trade, would generally be returned with an ample profit, and ſerve eventually to increaſe the money of the country.

From theſe ſeveral views of the ſubject, the ſecretary inferred the great importance of banks, as well in relation to the adminiſtration of the finances, as in the general ſyſtem of political economy.——Inſtitutions of this kind ſeemed to be recommended, in this country, by reaſons of a peculiar nature. Previouſly to the revolu-

tion, paper emiſſions, of the ſeveral local governments, furniſhed a circulating medium, which did not now exiſt. Pennſylvania alone circulated near a million and an half. A deficiency of circulating medium was at this time generally ſuppoſed to exiſt—how far this deficiency might be conſidered as real or imaginary, could not be demonſtrated, but various *circumſtances* and *appearances* might be advanced in ſupport of its reality.

Beſides the ceſſation of paper-emiſſions, two other *circumſtances* were mentioned; the vaſt tracts of waſte land, and the backward ſtate of manufactures.

In the early periods of new ſettlements, the active wealth of a country is diminiſhed. Part of the circulating money is drawn off to thoſe ſettlements, where it remains in a more paſſive ſtate; and a portion of that ſpecies of labour and induſtry, which might otherwiſe be employed in producing materials for exportation, and thereby contribute to the increaſe of ſpecie, is thus turned into an unproductive channel; it being an undoubted fact, that new ſettlements, inſtead of producing a ſurplus for foreign trade, conſume for ſome time part of that which is produced by the labour of others—Hence too the ſlow progreſs of manufactures. And it might, with good reaſon, be ſuſpected, that without mines, or a variety of manufactures, the precious metals could not abound in a country.

The *appearances*, which ſeemed to indicate a deficiency in the circulating medium, were—the prevalence of direct barter in the interior parts of the country, which however was gradually growing leſs; and the difficulty of advantageouſly diſpoſing of improved real eſtate, which had alſo been diminiſhed of late, but was ſtill ſeverely felt, in different parts of the union.——Some aid then to circulation being deſirable, it remained to inquire, what ought to be the nature of that aid?

The national conſtitution had wiſely prohibited the emitting of paper money, by the individual ſtates; and the ſpirit of the prohibition ought not to be diſregarded by the united ſtates. So dangerous and ſeducing an expedient, and one in its nature ſo liable to abuſe, ought not to be reſorted to. The ſtamping of paper was an operation ſo much more eaſy than the unpopular meaſure of laying taxes, that government would be apt, in trying emergencies, to carry it to a miſchievous length—till the paper thus emitted either became a mere bubble, or produced an artificial ſtate of things, incompatible with the regular and proſperous courſe of political economy.—A material difference between a paper currency, iſſued by the authority of government, and one iſſued by a bank, and payable in coin upon demand, was, that in the former caſe there was no ſtandard for aſcertaining the quantity which would ſatisfy or ſurcharge the circulation; but bank emiſſions muſt always be in a compound ratio to the fund on which they depend, and the demand for them;——hence, if more than the neceſſary amount were iſſued, it would be returned upon the bank—Thus there would be a limitation in the nature of the thing itſelf; while the extent of paper money emiſſions would depend altogether on the diſcretion of government. There could be no heſitation, therefore, in preferring bank paper to any other.

The quarterly payment of the intereſt of the public debt, at thirteen different places, was mentioned by the ſecretary, as affording a weighty reaſon, peculiar to the immediate ſtate of the country, for deſiring a bank circulation. "Without a paper, ſaid he, in general currency, equivalent to gold and ſilver, a conſiderable proportion of the ſpecie of the country muſt always be ſuſpended from circulation, and left to accumulate preparatorily to each day of payment; and, as often as one approaches, there muſt, in ſeveral caſes, be an actual tranſportation of the metals, at both expence and riſk, from their natural and proper reſervoirs, to diſtant places;" to the great injury of trade, and the embarraſſment of the treaſury operations, in ſome of the ſtates.

Aſſuming it as a conſequence from what had been ſaid, that the eſtabliſhment of a national bank was a deſirable object, the next enquiry of the ſecretary was, whether there were any bank already eſtabliſhed, which might ſuperſede the neceſſity or propriety of incorporating another, and if not, upon what principles a new one ought to be eſtabliſhed?

In ſolving the firſt of theſe queſtions, he obſerved that there were already three banks in the united ſtates—one in Boſton; one in New-York; and the bank of North America, eſtabliſhed in Philadelphia. The laſt of theſe, was the only one that had, at any time, had a direct relation to the united ſtates.—This inſtitution had, he acknowledged, rendered eminent ſervices to the united ſtates, from its eſtabliſhment by an ordinance of congreſs of December 31, 1781, to the cloſe of the war; nor had

its title to their patronage been weakened since the peace. But various considerations indicated the propriety of establishing a bank on different principles——The directors of this bank had accepted of a charter from the state of Pennsylvania, very different from their original one, particularly by reducing its former capital of ten thousand dollars to two thousand, beyond which it could not be extended. This would be a foundation very inadequate to a circulation co-extensive with the united states, and embracing the whole of the public revenues. The duration of its state charter was moreover limited to fourteen years, and it would consequently be liable to dissolution, at the termination of that period; this rendered it a very unfit equivalent for a bank of the united states. Another defect in this bank arose from the power the directors enjoyed, of *acting* upon a capital which might be far short of the allowed extent, as it now actually was. Hence, the allurements of a larger profit or dividend, would be apt to induce the directors to oppose any augmentation of the *actual* capital----they would endeavour to face, with their present foundation, whatever new demands the increase of business might create, rather than set new subscriptions on foot. This was making the bank subservient, not to public utility, but to private interest. But the former ought chiefly to be consulted in the establishment of public banks; due regard being at the same had to the profits of those who should engage in them——Free scope ought to be given to the creation of a sufficient capital; but safe and convenient bounds being once fixed, no discretionary power ought to be given, either to stop short of them or to overpass them.

The want of a principle of rotation in the directing officers was another objection to the present establishment of the bank of North America. The knowledge to be derived from experience, would not plead so strongly against a rotation principle, in this case, as in the constitution of a country. In the latter a general and accurate acquaintance with the affairs of the state, and habits of thinking seldom acquired but from a familiarity with public concerns, were absolutely necessary, to enable the legislator to decide on important cases, with propriety; but the administration of a bank being regulated by a few plain and established maxims, the application of these would be easy to any man of judgment, especially if acquainted with the principles of trade. But as the advantages of experience ought not to be slighted, it would be proper to exempt the principal officer from this rotation, and to provide against the changing of the *whole* of the directors at one time.

In favour of this rotation principle, the secretary urged the danger that there otherwise would be, of combinations among the directors, to make the institution subservient to the views of some particular party, or set of men. They would not be chosen by the community at large, but by a small and select class of men; and by having it in their power essentially to oblige the most influential of this class, they would seldom be changed.——He also stated the advantage of public confidence, which was liable to be shaken, by distrusts and discontents, when the affairs of an institution, which must from their nature be secret, were continually managed by the same persons.

Another consideration, in favour of a change, was the want of a proper rule for choosing directors. In the original charter of the bank of North America, each share gave a title to a vote—In the state charter no rule was prescribed, unless its silence on this head might signify that every stockholder was to have an equal vote. A vote for each share, would render a combination between a few principal stockholders, to monopolize the power and benefits of the bank, too easy. An equal vote to each stockholder, however great or small his interest in the institution, would not allow that degree of weight to large stockholders, which it was reasonable they should have, and which, perhaps, their security and that of the bank required. A prudent mean ought therefore to be preferred.

The last defect in the constitution of the bank of North America, which was particularly noticed by the secretary, was, the want of precautions to guard against foreign influence in its direction.

The next object of the report was, an inquiry into the principles upon which a national bank ought to be organized.——The situation of the united states naturally inspired a wish, that the form of the institution could admit of a plurality of branches. But, although such a plan would be attended with many advantages, yet the complexity of it, the danger of a wrong administration in some of the branches, the responsibility of the whole for the engagements of each part, and the serious disorder which

this might occasion in the affairs of the bank, all seemed to forbid the adoption of such a plan, as an original experiment. At most, there should be nothing more than a provision, which might lead to it at a future day, if experience should more clearly demonstrate its utility, and shew that it might be adopted with safety.

The particular situation of the country also, dictated a wish, that the bank could be so constituted as to be made an immediate instrument of loans to the proprietors of lands. But the very circumstance which made this desirable, would, at the same time, render land an improper fund for a bank circulation;——the impracticability of converting land into money, on any sudden emergency, either by sale or mortgage, without a great sacrifice of property. Combining land with specie would be liable to an additional objection—The money being the efficient agent of the profit, and the land only an additional security, the monied man would be unwilling to enter into a partnership of this kind, with the man of landed interest.

Many, in contemplating the establishment of a national bank, seemed to think that it might be so constituted, that the united states should enjoy its immediate profits. But, to attach full confidence to an institution of this nature, it was absolutely necessary that it should be under a *private* and not a *public* direction. No nation could boast of a constant succession of upright and wise administrators; and men of a contrary character would be apt, under the temptation of momentary exigencies, to abuse such a trust.——As to the aid of the bank, this would be almost ensured to government, by rendering it dependant, from time to time, for renovation; by government having the power of conferring reciprocal advantages, in the administration of the public finances; and by the many inducements which would dispose the directors to comply with the desires of a good government.

It would not follow from this, however, that the united states might not hold a part of the bank stock, and, in this way, enjoy a share of its profits. But as the public ought not to share in the direction of the bank, it ought not to own the whole or a principal part of the stock; for this would be committing the interests of the state to persons not sufficiently interested in their proper management.

But, although the government ought not to be vested with any controlling power in the administration of the bank, yet it ought, in duty to its own safety and that of the community, to reserve a right of ascertaining, as often as necessary, the state of the bank. Its paper would be permitted to insinuate itself into all the revenues and receipts of the country; and would even be substituted for gold and silver in all the transactions of business; in either of which views, it must be considered as a national concern of the first magnitude Such right in the government would give the institution an additional title to public and private confidence; and could only be formidable to practices that implied mismanagement.—The secretary then proceeded to his *plan of a national bank.* Of this, our limits will not permit us to give a detail; nor indeed, is such detail necessary, as the substance of the plan was adopted by congress in the bank bill, which the reader may consult, by turning to the Asylum for February last.

The secretary had so far anticipated the reasons on which the proposed plan was founded, that it was followed by but a few comments

He explained the propriety of employing a portion of the public debt, in the formation of the proposed capital of ten millions of dollars—To collect such a sum in gold and silver, would, in this country, be impracticable; and a smaller capital would neither be an adequate security, nor form a basis sufficiently broad, for the extensive operations of a national bank. Some auxiliary, therefore, being necessary, that of the public debt presented itself, as being preferable to any other. This part of the fund might be easily converted into coin, should the exigencies of the bank at any time require it. The quarterly receipts of interest would be an actual addition to the specie fund, during the intervals between them, and the half-yearly payments of profits; when they would enter into the dividends received by the stockholders. Changing the public debt into bank stock, would, in all probability, accelerate its rise to the proper value; a circumstance highly advantageous to the subscribers and public creditors, and eventually beneficial to the whole community, by converting the mass of public debt into an active capital, highly favourable to industry and commercial enterprize.

"There is, said the secretary, an important fact, which exemplifies the fitness of the public debt for a bank-fund, and which may serve to remove doubts in some minds on

this point. It is this—that the bank of England in its firſt erection, reſted wholly on that foundation. The ſubſcribers to a loan to government, of one million two hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, were incorporated as a bank; of which the debt created by the loan, and the intereſt upon it were the ſole fund. The ſubſequent augmentations of its capital, which now amounts to between eleven and twelve millions of pounds ſterling, have been of the ſame nature."

It was recommended, in the plan, to prohibit the bank from contracting debts beyond the amount of its capital.—This reſtriction exiſted in the bank of England; and, as a ſource of ſecurity, was well worthy of imitation. There each ſtockholder was made liable for the exceſs, in proportion to his intereſt in the bank; nor did this ſeem unreaſonable, when it was conſidered, that the directors were appointed by the ſtockholders. As it might, however, be deemed a hardſhip on thoſe who had diſſented from the choice; and as it might diſcourage many from having any concern in the inſtitution, he had been induced to place the reſponſibility on the directors who ſhould tranſgreſs the preſcribed limit.

To prevent executive encroachments, and combinations prejudicial to the intereſts of the union, loans to the united ſtates, or to any particular ſtate, were not to exceed a moderate and ſpecified ſum.

The conſideration of different rates of intereſt exiſting in different parts of the union rendered a limitation of the rate neceſſary in the propoſed plan. From the ſalutary influence of low intereſt, in giving an additional ſpring to trade and induſtry, there was room for a queſtion, whether it ought not rather to be limited to five than ſix per cent. Undoubtedly the former would yield an ample dividend; perhaps as much as the latter, by giving a greater extenſion to buſineſs. But the hazard of contrary reaſoning among the maſs of monied men, whoſe funds muſt conſtitute the ſtock of the bank, was a powerful argument againſt the experiment. They might not be diſpoſed to embark in the plan, if the rate of loans and diſcounts were reduced below the point to which they had been accuſtomed.

The laſt thing in the plan, on which the ſecretary thought any remark neceſſary, was an authority propoſed to be given to the Preſident of the united ſtates, to ſubſcribe, to the amount of two millions of dollars, on account of the public. The main deſign of this was, to encreaſe the ſpecie fund of the bank, and to enable it to give a more early extenſion to its operations. The exceſs of the dividend on the ſtock, above the intereſt paid on the loan, would, he obſerved, be a profit to the public.

He concluded with an obſervation, that there were many inducements for ingrafting the propoſed plan on the bank of North-America, if the managers of that inſtitution ſhould be diſpoſed to place it on a footing ſatisfactory to the government, and equal to the purpoſes of a national bank. Though it could claim no right to any excluſive privileges, none having been originally intended to be granted to it, for a longer period than till the end of the war; yet, on account of its ſervices, it deſerved well of the government. Beſides, its co-operation would very much accelerate the completion of the propoſed eſtabliſhment; and a diſagreeable interference of intereſts would be prevented by ſuch an union.——

Such, in ſubſtance, was the information on the ſubject of banks; and ſuch the reaſons brought forward in favour of the propoſed eſtabliſhment, in this very lengthy, ingenious and argumentative report.——In our next, we ſhall proceed with this ſubject, trace it in its progreſs through both houſes of the national legiſlature, and give our readers a comprehenſive ſketch of the intereſting diſcuſſion to which it gave riſe.

(To be continued.)

A conciſe abſtract of the NEW CONSTITUTION *of* FRANCE, *accepted by the King, and ratified by the People, July* 14*th.* 1790.

CONSTITUTIONAL ARTICLES.

THE government of France ſhall be monarchical.

The perſon of the king ſhall be inviolable and ſacred.

The crown ſhall be indiviſible, and hereditary from male to male.

The national aſſembly ſhall be permanent, and compoſed of one houſe.

Every legiſlature ſhall ſit two years, and all the members ſhall be re-eligible.

The king ſhall have a ſuſpenſory negative upon the laws propoſed by the national aſſembly; which negative ſhall have effect until the meeting of the third legiſlature after that by which the ſaid laws ſhall have been propoſed.

The king may invite the national aſſembly to take an object into conſideration; but the right of propoſing laws ſhall be veſted excluſively in the repreſentatives of the nation.

The ſupreme executive power ſhall be veſted excluſively in the king; he may from time to time enforce the laws by proclamation.

Every ordinance of the king ſhall be ſigned by his majeſty, and atteſted by a ſecretary of ſtate.

The judiciary power ſhall be entirely diſtinct from the two others; but juſtice ſhall be adminiſtered in the name of the king.

The impoſt ſhall be granted but for the time which will expire at the laſt day of the following ſeſſion.

The king's approbation of a law ſhall be expreſſed in the following words, "*The king conſents and will execute.*" The king's negative ſhall be thus, "*The king will examine.*"

The legiſlature may preſent its decrees to the king, either ſeparately, or collectively at the end of each ſeſſion.

The kingdom ſhall be divided into eighty-three departments, each department into diſtricts, and each diſtrict into cantons of about four ſquare leagues.

The election to the national aſſembly ſhall be made by the electors choſen in the departments.

Each department ſhall have an adminiſtrative aſſembly.

Each city, town, borough, or community, ſhall have a municipality.

The repreſentatives to the national aſſembly ſhall be conſidered as repreſentatives of the nation, and not of any particular department. Therefore they ſhall not be liable to be recalled in any caſe whatſoever. The ſame rule ſhall be obſerved with reſpect to the members of department or diſtrict aſſemblies.

All active citizens ſhall have a right to aſſemble in primary meetings by cantons. To be conſidered as an active citizen the following qualifications are required, 1ſt. to be a Frenchman, either by birth or naturalization; 2d. to be twenty-five years old; 3d. to be an inhabitant of the canton; 4th. to pay a contribution of the value of three days labour; 5th. not to be a ſervant at wages.

With theſe qualifications, non-Catholics and Jews ſhall be entitled to the rights of active citizens.

The canton aſſemblies ſhall annually make a liſt of all the citizens above 21 years of age, who ſhall take the civic oath, without which they ſhall have no right to elect or to be elected.

Bankrupts and inſolvent debtors, or ſons who neglect to pay their ſhare of the debts of their fathers, ſhall be excluded from all elections.

In the country, 900 inhabitants ſhall form two primary aſſemblies; but in cities, 4000 inhabitants ſhall have only one primary aſſembly.

The primary aſſemblies ſhall appoint one elector for each number of 100 active citizens. None ſhall be appointed an elector unleſs he pays a contribution of the value of 10 days labour.

The electors choſen by all the primary aſſemblies of a department, ſhall elect the members to the national aſſembly according to the plurality of votes. In caſe of an equality of votes, the oldeſt of the candidates ſhall be preferred.

The number of repreſentatives to the national aſſembly, ſhall be equal to the number of departments multiplied by nine. This repreſentation ſhall be eſtimated according to the compound ratio of territory, population, and contributions, that every department may have in the national legiſlature that influence, to which it is entitled by its territory, population and wealth. In conſequence of this diſtinction, ſome departments will have only five or ſix repreſentatives, and others twelve or thirteen.

To be eligible to the national aſſembly, it ſhall be required to pay a direct contribution of the value of a mark of ſilver, and to be in poſſeſſion of landed property.

The electors ſhall appoint *ſuppleans* or ſupplementary members, equal to the third of the number of the members of the national aſſembly.

Election ſhall be the only title to the functions of repreſentatives to the national aſſembly.—The liberty of their votes ſhall not be impeded by any particular mandate or inſtructions.

The ſame electors ſhall appoint the members of the department aſſemblies, whoſe number ſhall conſiſt of 36 for each department.

The electors of the ſame diſtrict ſhall appoint the members of the diſtrict aſſemblies, whoſe number ſhall be twelve for each diſtrict.

To be eligible to theſe aſſemblies, it ſhall be required to pay a contribution of ten days labour.

Theſe aſſemblies ſhall be permanent, and half of their members ſhall be renewed every two years.

Each adminiſtration of a department or diſtrict, ſhall be divided into a council and directory. The council to be aſſembled once in a year; and the directory to be always in activity. The directory of departments to be compoſed of eight members, that of diſtricts of a leſs number.

The councils of departments ſhall not ſit longer than one month, and thoſe of diſtricts no longer than two weeks.

The adminiſtration of departments ſhall, under the direction of the legiſlative body, and in conformity to the national decrees, be intruſted with the following powers: 1ſt. To aſſeſs in the diſtricts the contributions impoſed in each department, and the diſtricts, to make a re-partition of the ſame amongſt the municipalities; 2d. to cauſe the rolls of aſſeſſment to be made amongſt the taxable inhabitants of each municipality; 3d. to ſuperintend the regular payment of contributions, 4th. to ordain the expences aſſigned upon thoſe contributions.

They ſhall moreover, under the inſpection of the king as the ſupreme head of the nation, ſuperintend, 1ſt. the police of the poor and vagabonds; 2d. the hoſpitals, priſons, and houſes of correction; 3d. the publick education; 4th. the funds for the encouragement of agriculture and induſtry; 5th. the preſervation of public property; 6th. the foreſts, rivers, canals, roads, &c. 7th. the building of churches, preſbyteries, &c. 8th. the execution of the laws relative to public ſecurity and ſalubrity; 9th, the ſervice and employment of the militia.

No reſolution of a diſtrict or department ſhall be carried into execution, without the conſent of the king, excepting current buſineſs.

The adminiſtrative aſſemblies ſhall have no right to levy an impoſt, or to open a loan, without the conſent of the national aſſembly.

In the primary aſſemblies, the votes of thoſe who cannot write, ſhall be written by three of the oldeſt citizens, who ſhall have taken an oath for this purpoſe, and who ſhall during the ſame meeting remain at the ſame place. The electors ſhall not write their votes any where elſe than at the place of meeting.

None ſhall be elected or eligible, without having taken the civic oath.

The head of every municipal body ſhall be called the mayor. All active citizens may concur in the formation of municipalities. 4000 inhabitants ſhall form one aſſembly, 8000, two, &c. &c.

Two near relations ſhall not be at the ſame time members of a municipality.

The mayors ſhall be elected by the plurality of votes, and the other members by ballots of double liſts.

The number of the members ſhall be in proportion to the population of the diſtricts.

Each municipal body ſhall be divided into a council and a board. The council to meet once a month The board to be permanent.

The mayor may be re-elected after two years, but ſhall not ſerve more than four years.

The elections ſhall take place throughout the kingdom on the firſt Sunday after Saint Martin's day.

The functions of the municipalities ſhall be twofold, 1ſt. under the authority of the departments, to ſuperintend the revenue of public property, to diſcharge local expences, to ſurvey public works, and to maintain a good police. 2d. Under the authority of the king, to make a re-partition of direct contributions; to ſuperintend the collection of the ſame, and their payment; to direct and ſurvey public eſtabliſhments; to build and keep in repair churches, preyſbyteries, priſons, hoſpitals, and other public buildings.

The municipalities may requeſt the aſſiſtance of the national guards.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SIR,

THE enclosed is extracted from a London paper; and as the young gentleman who is the subject of the eulogium, was born in this state, it would be agreeable to a sympathizing friend of his connections, to have it placed in your magazine, it being a receptacle of a less fugitive nature than a newspaper. Please to prefix to the extract, the following passage from an original letter of Mr. Duche, to an intimate friend in Pennsylvania. Y. Z.

"I hope my future endeavours in the line of my profession, will render me more worthy of that good opinion, which you are pleased to express of me. I agree perfectly with Mr. *Addison*, that all the *arts* and *sciences* should be employed, in one confederacy, against the prevailing torrent of vice and impiety; and can assure you that when I first took up the *historical* branch of painting, I determined to employ my *pencil* on such subjects only, as should tend to improve, not vitiate the mind.—I am not ashamed to say, "*antique*" as you seem to think it appears, that I find, in general, much more purity and solidity of sentiment in the writers of the last century, than in those of more modern times." T, D.

London July, 23d 1787.

ON Wednesday afternoon, died Mr. Thomas Duché, a young artist of very distinguished merit, who, to an uncommon degree of genius, united the strictest purity of moral conduct—excellencies which seemed to add dignity to his manners, and gracefulness to his appearance; both of which in him were most conspicuous and pleasing.

The death of Mr. Duché is the more to be regretted, because from the elegance and correctness of his mind, he attached himself chiefly to moral and sentimental compositions—subjects hitherto little handled by the artists of the English school; and which, if treated with ability, could not fail to promote the best purposes of painting.

An infant Saviour, and one or two pieces for public charities, the productions of Mr. Duché's pencil, will long remain monuments of his taste and talents, which promised the greatest perfection in his art, and honour to the master under whom he studied.

To his parents, whose elevated piety can alone enable them to support such an affliction with fortitude, it must be a consolation to be entitled to exclaim with the duke of Ormond on a similar occasion—"Alas, my dead son! I would not give up the remembrance of thy virtues, to possess the fortunes of all the living sons in Europe."

Ostendent terris hunc tantum fata, neque ultra
Esse sinent.——————————
——————————*Manibus date lilia plenis;*
Purpureos spargam flores, animamque nepotis
His saltem accumulem donis, et fungar inani
Munere.—————————— VIRGIL.

[*Lon. Gaz. April*, 1790.]

PHILADELPHIA.

May 7th. It has been common, says a correspondent, time immemorial, to publish an *obituary*, or list of the deaths of *persons* in all our magazines. Perhaps it would be more useful to publish an obituary, or a list of political and ecclesiastical *heresies*; more especially at the present juncture, when a fatal epidemic seems to prevail among them.

The following is a ſpecimen of the propoſed ſpecies of *obituary*.

Died lately in France—The *Divine Right* of Kings—*Indefeaſable Right*—*Unequal Rights* among men—*Paſſive Obedience*, and *Non-reſiſtance*—*Hereditary Nobility*, which is now conſidered as abſurd as hereditary knowledge, in algebra, or conic ſections—*Titles*, which are now conſidered to be as ridiculous appendages to names, as rings are in the ears and noſes of Indians—The *ſupremacy* of the *Pope*—The neceſſity of *Apoſtolic ſucceſſion* to conſtitute a miniſter of the goſpel—The *Alliance* of *Church* and *State*—And laſtly, *Extravagant* and *unequal* Church benefices.

N. B. The two laſt *hereſies* died very hard.

The ſame contagion of right reaſon which has ſwept away ſo many hereſies in France, it is ſaid, has begun to prevail in other countries, although great pains are taken to prevent its ſpreading. Some ſymptoms of it have appeared in England. It is expected that no hereſies ſimilar to thoſe which have lately died in France, will ſurvive the laſt year of the preſent century, in any country in Europe.

May 10*th*. On Sunday laſt about two o'clock in the afternoon a fire broke out in the kitchen belonging to the houſe of Mr. Kennedy, near Ninth, in Market-ſtreet. Notwithſtanding the utmoſt exertions of the citizens conſiderable damage was done to the roof of the kitchen and the mead-houſe adjoining. And

LAST EVENING, about half after ten o'clock, the ſtables in Dock, near Third-ſtreet, were diſcovered to be on fire. They were wooden buildings, and the flames almoſt inſtantaneouſly burſt out in a tremendous manner. Never did the citizens of this metropolis more generally turn out for the preſervation of the city; nor were there ever greater efforts upon any ſimilar occaſion. The fire, however, ſpread in every direction, for a conſiderable time, by which not leſs than eighteen or twenty buildings (chiefly of wood) were reduced to aſhes.

A loom has been invented in Ireland to weave cotton and linen, by which two webs can be woven at the ſame time by one weaver, with more eaſe and expedition, and (as it is reported) with more perfection than one web can be woven in a common loom. A Committee of the Iriſh Houſe of Commons have made a report highly in its favour.

May 14*th*, It is with pleaſure we hear that a ſum of money has within a few days been collected, which is more than ſufficient to make good all the damages ſuſtained by the poor families who have ſuffered by the late fire in Dock-ſtreet.

The contributions, on this occaſion, have been remarkably liberal, and in an uncommon degree diſplayed the philanthropy and humanity of our citizens.

In addition to the above, one hundred and ſeventy-eight dollars have been raiſed by the Old American Company, at the Theatre, for the relief of thoſe unfortunate people.

May 17*th*, The fall of rain laſt Friday in Berks county, Pennſylvania, exceeded any thing of the kind ever known in that part of the country. It poured down in a tremendous torrent, from two in the afternoon till Saturday morning at three. Several mill-dams are totally deſtroyed, and otherwiſe much damage done. Houſes on conſiderable eminences were entirely ſurrounded with water; in one of which the carpenter of Gibraltar Forge periſhed.

May, 26*th*. 'Tis a fact worthy of notice, that no rum or ſpirit of any kind was uſed on board the ſhip *Brothers*, *Capt. Joſiah*, in his late voyage to Canton. His men were uncommonly healthy, and not a life was loſt between his leaving the Delaware and his return to it. The conſtant drink of his ſailors was ſpruce-beer. Twenty years ago it was thought as Utopian to think of navigating a veſſel without a daily allowance of rum, to ſailors, as it now is to think of cultivating rice or ſugar without ſlaves.

The law of *primogeniture* is aboliſhed in France—property is to be equally diſtributed among the males and females of the family.

A French Deputy, lately challenged by an officer, replied he knew nothing of arms, and was even ignorant how to load a piſtol; but he propoſed, before four witneſſes, to throw up for the chance of which of them ſhould be hanged.

We hear that the ſhip Maſſachuſetts, Job Prince, Eſq. Commander, has been ſold in India for ſixty five thouſand dollars; This ſhip was upwards of 800 tons burthen. The ſhip Hercules, upwards of 600 tons, has alſo been ſold in that country. Theſe veſſels were built in Maſſachuſetts, the former compoſed of American materials altogether.

Extract of a letter from Portſmouth, April, 1.

"About three o'clock this afternoon, on a ſignal made from the Royal William, a general preſs took place here. There being a conſiderable number of colliers and other coaſting veſſels in the harbour; near three hundred prime ſeamen were picked up in a few hours, principally north countrymen. An outward bound Weſt Indiaman, in St. Helen's road, had all her hands taken out.

This evening ſailed his Majeſty's ſhips Ardent and Aſſiſtance, for the Downs; and the Flirt and Scout ſloops, and Barraconta cutter, on the impreſs ſervice.

On Wedneſday morning, at four o'clock, the Ruſſian miniſter diſpatched a courier to Peterſburgh, with the reſult of the debate in the two houſes of parliament. His return may be expected within five weeks, and the contents of his diſpatches will decide whether we ſhall have a war with Ruſſia or not."

By the votes of the two houſes of Parliament, it appears that the Britiſh government is determined to interpoſe its power for bringing about a peace between Ruſſia and the Porte. The armed neutrality, during the laſt war, affords a precedent for the warlike preparations now making in England. How far Catharine will reliſh being dictated to, time will diſcover.

Ruſſia does not appear to have paid any regard hitherto to the mediation in her quarrel with the Porte.

The Grand Seignior has ſent the Sultana Valide, his mother, to the old ſeraglio, for having attempted to reconcile him to the Ruſſians.

The Tammany Society, No. 1, of New-York, are forming an extenſive Muſeum in that city—a conſiderable collection is already made—their plan is general, and will have a friendly aſpect on the natural and political hiſtory of our country.

A ſlight ſhock of an earthquake was felt on the evening of the 16th inſt. in many of the ſea-ports, extending from the ſtate of New-York to Boſton.

MARRIAGES.

PENNSYLVANIA. At *Philadelphia*, Mr. Adam Rugart, jun. of *Lancaſter*, to Miſs Maria Wager; Mr. Robert Harris of *Harriſburgh*, to Miſs Elizabeth Ewing; Mr. John Skyrin to Miſs Nancy Drinker; the Rev. Dr. Witherſpoon, of *Princeton*, to Mrs. Dill. At *Pittſburg*, Mr. Jeremiah Barker, to Miſs Sally Heth; at *Cheſter*. Mr. Samuel Richards jun. of *Philadelphia*, to Miſs Mary Worral of *Cheſter* county.

DELAWARE. At *Wilmington*, Mr. Benjamin Rumſey to Miſs Elizabeth Coleſberry, of New-Caſtle hundred; capt. Samuel Lovering to Miſs Mary Shallcroſs.

MARYLAND. In *Baltimore*, Mr. Gilbert Bigger to Miſs Sally Rice.

DEATHS.

RHODE-ISLAND. At *Newport*, Mrs. Mary Jerſey, aged 79.

CONNECTICUT. At *Granville*, Mrs. Abigail Roſe, aged 103.

NEW-YORK. In the *capital*, Mrs. Elizabeth Kemmena, conſort of Dr. E. Kemmena, aged 70.

NEW-JERSEY. At *Newark*, Mrs. G. Burnet, conſort of William Burnet, Eſq.

PENNSYLVANIA. In *Philadelphia*, the Hon. Francis Hopkinſon Eſq; capt. Thomas Rowan. in *Delaware* county Mrs. Elizabeth Price, relict of John Price, Eſq. Drowned, in attempting to croſs Wiſſahickon-creek, Dr. Archibald Mc. Lean, of *Montgomery* county.

DELAWARE. At *Wilmington*, capt. Ralph Walker, aged 72.

MARYLAND. In *Baltimore*, Mr. David Sterrett, (killed in a duel) Mr. Joſeph Speight, aged 72. In *Hartford* county, Mrs Bond, aged 87.

VIRGINIA. At *Berkely*, in Charles-city county the Hon. Benjamin Harriſon Eſq.

NORTH-CAROLINA. At *New-bern*, Mr. John Bryan.

SOUTH-CAROLINA. At *Charleſton*, Daniel Legare jun, Eſq; *Miſs* Mary Heſter Douxſant, aged 64.

Philadelphia Prices-Current,

M A Y, 31, 1791.

	Ashes, pot, p. ton,	35l.
Beef.	*Pen. and Jer. p. bbl.*	45s.
	Connecticut, do.	47/6.
	Boston, (wmsbips)	55s.
	Brandy, French, p. gal.	7s-8/4.
	Bread, ship, per cwt.	17/6.
Beer	*American, in bottles, per dozen*	8/4.
	Ditto, per bbl.	30s.
Boards	*Oak, p. m. feet,*	67/6-85s.
	Merchant. pine	95s.
	Sap,	60s.
	Cedar,	55-65s.
	Chocolate, per lb.	1s.
	Coffee, per. lb.	14-14½d.
Flour.	*Superfine, p. bl.*	39/6.
	Common,	37s.
	Bur. mid. best,	32/6s.
	Middlings,	26-27s.
	Ship stuff, p. cwt.	10-12s.
	Flax, per lb.	7½-9d.
	Flaxseed, per bush.	5-5/9s.
	Ginseng, per lb.	1/6-2s.
	Gin, Holland, per gal.	5/9-6s.
Grain	*Wheat, p. bush.*	7/6-7/9.
	Rye,	5s.
	Oats,	2/6.
	Indian corn,	2/6-2/9.
	Barley,	4/7.
	best shelled,	20s.
	Buckwheat,	2s
	Hams, per lb.	6½d.
	Hogs-lard,	7½d-8d.
	Honey,	3½d-4d
	Hemp, per. ton,	50-56l.
	Hops, per lb.	2/3-2/6.
	Hogshead hoops, p. m.	5-6l.
	Hides raw, per lb.	9½d-10d.
	Indigo, Fr. per lb.	7/6-12s.
	Carolina,	4-6/6.
Iron.	*Cast, per cwt.*	22/6-30s
	Bar, per ton,	29l-30l.
	Pig,	9l-10l.
	Sheet,	60l-65l
	Nail rods,	36l.
	Meal, Indian, p. bbl.	16/8-17s.
	Molasses, per gal.	3s-3/3.
	Nails, 10, 12 & 20*d.*	9d.
Oil.	*Sper. strained, p. g.*	3/7.
	Whale com.	2s.
	Do. Northern,	2/9.
	Tanners p. bbl.	67/6.
	Parchment, per doz.	30-37/6.
	Porter, American,	10/6.
Pork.	*Burlington,*	75s-77/6.
	Lower Co.	57/6-60s.
	Carolina,	55-60s.
	Pease,	6s-7/6.
	Rice, per cwt.	21/6-22s.
Rum.	*Jamaica per g.*	6s.
	Windward,	5s.
	Antigua,	5/6.
	Barbadoes,	4/6.
	Country,	3/6.
	Taffia,	2/4.
Steel.	*German, p. cwt.*	60-70s.
	English, blistered,	80s.
	Amer. p. ton,	40-60s.
	Crowley's, p. fag.	85s.
	Snake root, p. lb.	1/6-2/8
	Soap, common,	6d.
	Castile,	9d.
	Starch,	4d-6d.
Sugar.	*Lump, per lb.*	17d.
	Loaf, sing. refin.	18d.
	Ditto, double ditto.	20d.
	Havannah, white,	11d.
	Ditto, brown,	9d.
	Musco. p. cwt.	90s.
Salt.	*Allum, p. bush.*	2/2.
	Liverpool,	2/4
	Cadiz,	2s-2/3.
	Lisbon,	2/2-2/4.
Tar	*N. Jer. 24 g.*	7/6.
	Carolina, 32 g.	8/4-9s.
	Turpentine,	15s.
Tobacco, 100lb.	*J. R. new best,*	27/6-28s.
	Inferior,	20s-22/6.
	Old,	35-37/6.
	Rappahan.	22/6-24s.
	Coloured Maryl.	30-60s.
	Dark,	18/9-20s.
	Long leaf,	18/9-20s.
	Eastern Shore,	16s-20s.
	Carolina, new,	22/6-25s
	Old,	25-30s.
Tea.	*Hyson, p. lb.*	7/6-8/6.
	Souchong,	4/1-6/8.
	Congo,	3/9-5/9.
	Bohea,	2/6.
Wines.	*Mad. p. p.*	40l-75l.
	Lisboa,	30l.
	Teneriffe, p. g.	3/9.
	Fayal, p. g.	3/4.
	Port, per pipe,	40-42l10s
	Ditto, per gal.	5/10.
	Dit. per doz. bot.	28-30s.
	Claret,	30-60s.
	Sherry, p. gal.	7/6.
	Malaga,	5s.
	Wax, bees, per lb.	1/10½-2s.

Current Prices of Public Securities.

Funded debt.	*6 per Cents*	17s——17/2.	*per £.* or 86	*per Cent.*
	3 per Cents	9/3——3/4.	or 46	*do.*
	Defered 6 per Cents	9/2——9/3.	45	*do.*
Unfunded do.	*Final Settl. and other Certificates*	16/1.	80	*do.*
	Indents	9/3.	45	*do.*
	State debts	12/6——15s.	62½	*do.*

Course of Exchange.

Bills of Exchange, London,	*90 days,*	68—69.	*Amsterdam,*	*60 days, per guilder,*	3s.
Ditto,	*60 days,*	70—72.		*30 days,*	3/8
Ditto	*30 days,*	73½.	*France,*	*60 days, per 5 livres,*	6/8
				30 days,	6/1

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of APRIL, 1791.

Days.	Barom. Eng. foot. In.	Therm. of Farenh. Reaum. D.	Anemometer Prevail. Wind	rain	thunder	aurora	WEATHER.
1	30 2 7	45 7 | 6 1	NW				Fair
	30 1 5	62 6 | 13 6	WSW				Idem
2	29 10 0	50 4 | 8 2	WSW	1			Cloudy, small rain
	29 10 0	62 4 | 13 5	WNW				Idem
3	30 2 1	36 0 | 1 8	NW				Sun eclipsed
	30 2 2	61 0 | 12 9	WNW				Clear, windy
4	30 2 3	38 7 | 3 0	W				Fair
	30 1 4	58 1 | 11 6	W				Cloudy
5	30 2 0	42 1 | 4 5	W				Fair
	30 2 2	55 8 | 10 6	WNW				Idem
6	30 4 13	36 7 | 2 1	N				Idem
	30 3 14	54 9 | 10 2	W				Cloudy
7	30 2 13	36 9 | 2 2	W				Fair
	30 2 12	57 9 | 11 5	N				Cloudy
8	30 5 3	41 2 | 4 1	NNE				Idem
	30 4 10	55 8 | 10 6	NE				Fair
9	30 4 9	40 3 | 3 7	N				Idem
	30 2 12	62 4 | 13 5	WNW				Idem
10	30 2 5	42 1 | 4 5	ESE				Cloudy
	30 2 4	58 1 | 11 6	ENE				Fair
11	30 2 6	47 7 | 7 0	N				Idem
	30 1 1	69 3 | 16 6	N				Idem
12	29 10 7	51 1 | 8 5	SW	1			Rain
	29 9 0	83 7 | 23 0	WSW	1			Cloudy Rain
13	29 6 13	62 4 | 13 5	WSW	1			Rain
	29 5 3	76 1 | 19 6	WSW	1	1		Cloudy thunder rain
14	29 8 0	42 1 | 4 5	NE	1			Small rain
	29 8 7	54 0 | 9 8	NE				Cloudy
15	29 8 0	48 6 | 7 4	WNW	1			Rain
	29 8 4	63 5 | 14 0	WNW				Cloudy
16	29 9 13	45 7 | 6 1	WNW				Fair
	29 8 9	63 5 | 14 0	E				Cloudy
17	29 7 2	52 5 | 9 1	N				Idem
	29 7 11	64 8 | 14 6	NNE				Idem
18	29 10 11	53 4 | 9 5	NW				Fair
	29 10 6	67 1 | 15 6	NNW				Idem
19	29 11 3	48 0 | 7 1	WNW				Idem
	29 11 7	63 5 | 14 0	WNW				Idem
20	30 1 5	49 1 | 7 6	NW				Idem
	30 1 2	68 2 | 16 1	WNW				Cloudy
21	30 2 9	45 7 | 6 1	WNW				Idem, fog
	30 2 12	68 0 | 16 0	WNW				Idem
22	30 3 11	61 0 | 12 9	S				Idem
	30 2 15	70 9 | 17 3	SW				Idem
23	30 2 0	59 9 | 12 4	SW				Idem
	30 1 2	72 6 | 18 5	SSW	1			Idem, Rain
24	30 0 0	63 7 | 14 1	SSW				Idem
	29 10 15	72 9 | 18 2	SSW	1			Idem Rain
25	30 4 5	51 6 | 8 7	WNW				Fair
	30 3 15	65 7 | 15 0	WNW				Idem
26	30 2 6	57 9 | 11 5	WSW				Idem
	30 1 10	79 2 | 21 0	WNW				Idem
27	30 0 9	76 1 | 10 7	NE				Idem
	29 10 6	69 6 | 16 7	NE				Idem
28	30 2 12	47 7 | 7 0	NNW				Idem
	30 1 9	63 5 | 14 0	WNW				Idem
29	30 0 0	55 8 | 10 6	WNW				Cloudy
	29 10 7	72 5 | 18 0	WNW				Idem
30	29 11 3	59 2 | 12 1	NE				Idem
	29 10 11	74 7 | 19 0	WSW				Idem

RESULT.	Barom.	Therm. of Farenh. Reaum.	Anemometer Prevail. Wind	rain	thunder	aurora	WEATHER.
	30 in gr. ele.	83 7 | 23 0					
	30 5 12	83 7 | 23 0					
	28 least el.	42 1 | 4 5					
	29 5 3	36 0 | 1 8	WNW	9	1		Cloudy
	Variation	Variation					
	0 11 10	79 7 | 21 2					
	Mean eleva.	Temperature					
	30 0 7	57 3 | 11 3		1		1	

THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR JUNE, 791.

BY A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

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PHILADELPHIA:

PRINTED, FOR THE PROPRIETORS, BY *WILLIAM YOUNG*, BOOKSELLER, No. 52, SECOND-STREET, THE CORNER OF CHESNUT-STREET.

OSMYN *of Baſſora, an Eaſtern Tale*— Prettily written; but to what end? This ſpecies of writing became very faſhionable, after it had been ſanctioned by Addiſon, Johnſon, and Hawkeſworth. A whole herd of imitators aroſe, who caught, very readily, ſomething like the ſtile and manner, but were unable to attain the true excellence of thoſe writers, who inculcated, in a way ſuited to attract the attention of all claſſes of readers, the moſt pure and ſublime precepts of morality. Unleſs they rendered ſubſervient to the intereſts of virtue, compoſitions of this kind are unworthy of attention. However diſtinguiſhed by harmony of language, or richneſs and variety of imagery, they are but a *blendid nothing*.

Thoughts on Title and Nobility contains ſome excellent remarks; but they are too much intermixed with perſonal reflections. Should the author think proper to change his plan, and take up the ſubject in a general view, we would gladly give his performance a place.

Obſervations on Gaming——The author's intention appears to be laudable, but not well executed. The ſentiments are trite, and the language incorrect. We cannot perceive, with the writer, that the evil is a growing one in America; we feel great ſatisfaction in a perſuaſion that this is by no means the caſe. In the united ſtates, where all are more or leſs engaged in buſineſs, there is not ſuch an inducement to have recourſe to gaming, as in thoſe countries, where a large proportion of the inhabitants ſeem to have no other end in view, than merely to "killtime."

The Heroine in humble life——*Happineſs at home, a ſong*——The *Anacreontic*, beginning 'When mild evening'——*The good tenant*——*The happy huſband*—*The neceſſity of occupation*—*True courage*—*The modern cynic*—*The Chriſtian's wiſh*—And the poem on *Good Temper* have all been received, and will be inſerted as ſpeedily as poſſible. Some of theſe performances have great merit. The reſpective authors are entitled to our ſincere *thanks*.

Our much eſteemed correſpondent, *Laura*, will perceive that we are not inattentive either to her favours, or to thoſe written by *Sylvia*. We ſhall continue to liminiſh our debt to both, monthly, till the whole are inſerted.

The ſame attention which is requiſite to make even an indifferent verſifier, would, if properly directed, be ſufficient to attain at leaſt correctneſs, if not elegance of ſtile, as a writer of proſe. Few perſons are calculated to riſe to excellence in poetry; moſt who attempt it fail. But a good proſe ſtile is eaſily attainable; and is, in general, far more valuable, not only for the purpoſes of common life, but for thoſe of ſcience and virtue. We beg leave to recommend theſe obſervations, to the attention of ſome of our poetical correſpondents, whoſe performances we have not particularly mentioned.

THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, AND Columbian Magazine,

FOR JUNE, 1791.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

HISTORY *of the* LIFE *and* CHARACTER *of* BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, L. L. D. *&c. &c. &c.*

(Continued from page 300.)

PERHAPS no perſon could have been found, more capable of rendering eſſential ſervices to the United States, at the court of France, than Dr. Franklin. He was well known as a philoſopher, and his character was held in the higheſt eſtimation. He was received with the greateſt marks of reſpect, by all the literary characters; and this reſpect was extended amongſt all claſſes of men. His perſonal influence was hence very conſiderable. To the effects of this were added thoſe of various performances which he publiſhed, tending to eſtabliſh the credit and character of the United States. To his exertions in this way, may, in no ſmall degree, be aſcribed the ſucceſs of the loans negotiated in Holland and France, which greatly contributed to bringing the war to a happy concluſion.

The repeated ill ſucceſs of their arms, and more particularly the capture of Cornwallis and his army, at length convinced the Britiſh nation of the impoſſibility of reducing the Americans to ſubjection. The trading intereſt particularly became clamorous for peace. The miniſtry were unable longer to oppoſe their wiſhes. Proviſional articles of peace were agreed to and ſigned at Paris, on the 30th of November 1782, by Dr. Franklin, Mr. Adams, Mr. Jay, and Mr. Laurens, on the part of the United States; and by Mr. Oſwald on the part of Great-Britain. Theſe formed the baſis of the definitive treaty, which was concluded the 3d of September 1783, and ſigned by Dr. Franklin, Mr. Adams, and Mr. Jay on the one part, and by Mr. David Hartley on the other.

On the 3d of April 1783, a treaty of amity and commerce, between the United States and Sweden, was concluded at Paris, by Dr. Franklin and the Count von Krutz.

A ſimilar treaty with Pruſſia was concluded in 1785, not long before Dr. Franklin's departure from Europe.

Dr. Franklin did not ſuffer his political purſuits to engroſs his whole attention. Some of his performances made their appearance in Paris. The object of theſe was generally the promotion of induſtry and economy.

In the year 1784, when animal magnetiſm made great noiſe in the world, particularly at Paris, it was thought a matter of ſuch importance, that the king appointed commiſſioners to examine into the foundation of this pretended ſcience. Dr. Franklin was one of the number. After a fair and diligent examination, in the courſe of which Meſmer repeated a number of experiments, in the preſence of the commiſſioners, ſome of which were tried upon themſelves, they determined that it was a mere trick, intended to impoſe upon the ignorant and credulous—Meſmer was thus interrupted in his career to wealth and fame, and a moſt inſolent attempt to impoſe upon the human underſtanding baffled.

The important ends of Dr. Franklin's miſſion being completed, by the eſtabliſhment of American independence; and the infirmities of age and diſeaſe coming upon him, he became deſirous of returning to his native country. Upon application to congreſs to be recalled, Mr. Jefferſon was appointed to ſucceed him, in 1785. Sometime in September, of the ſame year, Dr. Franklin arrived in Philadelphia. He was ſhortly after choſen member of the ſupreme executive council for the city; and ſoon after was elected preſident of the ſame.

When a convention was called to meet in Philadelphia, in 1787, for the purpoſe of giving more energy to the government of the union, by reviſing and amending the articles of confederation, Dr. Franklin was appointed a delegate from the State of Pennſylvania. He ſigned the conſtitution which they propoſed for the union, and gave it the moſt unequivocal marks of his approbation.

A ſociety for political enquiries, of which Dr. Franklin was preſident, was eſtabliſhed about this period. The meetings were held at his houſe. Two or three eſſays read in this ſociety were publiſhed. It did not long continue.

In the year 1787, two ſocieties were eſtabliſhed in Philadelphia, founded in principles of the moſt liberal and refined humanity,—*the Philadelphia Society for alleviating the miſeries of public priſons*; and the *Pennſylvania Society for promoting the abolition of ſlavery, the relief of free negroes unlawfully held in bondage, and the improvement of the condition of the African race.* Of each of theſe Dr. Franklin was preſident. The labours of theſe bodies have been crowned with great ſucceſs; and they continue to proſecute, with unwearied diligence, the laudable deſigns for which they were eſtabliſhed.

Dr. Franklin's increaſing infirmities prevented his regular attendance at the council-chamber; and, in 1788, he retired wholly from public life.

His conſtitution had been a remarkably good one. He had been little ſubject to diſeaſe, except an attack of the gout occaſionally, until about the year 1781, when he was firſt attacked with ſymptoms of the calculous complaint, which continued during his life. During the intervals of pain from this grievous diſeaſe, he ſpent many cheerful hours, converſing in the moſt agreeable and inſtructive manner.

His faculties were entirely unimpaired, even to the hour of his death.

His name as preſident of the Abolition Society was ſigned to the memorial preſented to the Houſe of Repreſentatives of the United States, on the 12th of February 1789, praying them to exert the full extent of power veſted in them by the conſtitution, in diſcouraging the traffic in the human ſpecies. This was his laſt public act. In the debates to which this memorial gave riſe, ſeveral attempts were made to juſtify the trade. In the Federal Gazette of March 25th there appeared an eſſay, ſigned Hiſtoricus, written by Dr. Franklin, in which he communicated a ſpeech, ſaid to have been delivered in the Divan of Algiers, in 1687, in oppoſition to the prayer of the petition of a ſect called *Erika* or Puriſts, for the abolition of piracy and ſlavery. This pretended African ſpeech was an excellent parody of one delivered by Mr. Jackſon of Georgia. All the arguments urged in favour of negro ſlavery, are applied, with equal force, to juſtify the plundering and enſlaving of Europeans. It affords, at the ſame time, a demonſtation of the futility of the arguments in defence of the ſlave trade, and of the ſtrength of mind and ingenuity of the author, at his advanced period of life. It furniſhed too a no leſs convincing proof of his power of imitating the ſtile of other times and nations, than his celebrated parable againſt perſecution. And as the latter led many perſons to ſearch the ſcriptures with a view to find it, ſo the former cauſed many perſons to ſearch the book-ſtores and libraries, for the work from which it was ſaid to be extracted.

In the beginning of April following, he was attacked with a fever and complaint of his breaſt, which terminated his exiſtence. The following account of his laſt illneſs was written by his friend and phyſician, Dr. Jones.

"The ſtone, with which he had been afflicted for ſeveral years, had for the laſt twelve months confined him chiefly to his bed; and during the extreme painful paroxyſms, he was obliged to take large doſes of laudanum to mitigate his tortures—ſtill, in the intervals of pain, he not only amuſed himſelf with reading and converſing cheerfully with his family, and a few friends, who viſited him, but was often employed in doing buſineſs of a public as well as private nature, with various perſons, who waited on him for that purpoſe; and in every inſtance diſplayed, not only that readineſs and diſpoſition of doing good, which was the diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic of his life, but the fulleſt and cleareſt poſſeſſion of his uncommon mental abilities; and not unfrequently indulged himſelf in thoſe *Jeux D'Eſprit* and entertaining anecdotes, which were the delight of all who heard him.

About ſixteen days before his death, he was ſeized with a feveriſh indiſpoſition, without any particular ſymptoms attending it, till the third or fourth day, when he complained of a pain in the left breaſt, which increaſed till it became extremely acute, attended with a cough and laborious breathing. During this ſtate, when the ſeverity of his pains ſometimes drew forth a groan of complaint, he would obſerve—that he was afraid he did not bear them as he ought——acknowledged his grateful ſenſe of the many bleſſings he had received from that Supreme Being, who had raiſed him from ſmall and low beginnings

to ſuch high rank and conſideration among men—and made no doubt but his preſent afflictions were kindly intended to wean him from a world, in which he was no longer fit to act the part aſſigned him. In this frame of body and mind he continued till five days before his death, when his pain and difficulty of breathing entirely left him, and his family were flattering themſelves with the hopes of his recovery, when an impoſthumation, which had formed itſelf in his lungs, ſuddenly burſt, and diſcharged a great quantity of matter, which he continued to throw up while he had ſufficient ſtrength to do it, but, as that failed, the organs of reſpiration became gradually oppreſſed—a calm lethargic ſtate ſucceeded——and on the 17th of April 1790, about eleven o'clock at night, he quietly expired, cloſing a long and uſeful life of eighty-four years and three months.

"It may not be amiſs to add to the above account, that Dr. Franklin, in the year 1735, had a ſevere pleuriſy, which terminated in an abſceſs of the left lobe of his lungs, and he was then almoſt ſuffocated with the quantity and ſuddenneſs of the diſcharge. A ſecond attack of a ſimilar nature happened ſome years after this, from which he ſoon recovered, and did not appear to ſuffer any inconvenience in his reſpiration from theſe diſeaſes."

(To be concluded in our next.)

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

The BLUSH.

THERE are ſome characters, which are principally impreſſed by art; there are others, which bear the ſtamp of unimproved nature; and in a third claſs we may with pleaſure trace the happy effects of nature and of art. The time has been when bluſhing, to make uſe of a common expreſſion, was a ſign of grace. It is now too often derided in polite circles; and is ſcarcely praiſed by thoſe of inferior accompliſhments. If the roſe of ſentiment ſuddenly blooms on the cheek of Dorinda, ſhe is ridiculed by the whole company; nor can even relations forbear from ſilently condemning her ſenſations. Does the young and well-diſpoſed Amintor manifeſt his feelings by this indication of ſentimental delicacy? He is charged with weakneſs, by the generality of his aſſociates, and expoſed to thoſe penalties which the laws of ridicule have preſcribed. The glaſs is circulated with double celerity, and the peal of mirth increaſed at the expence of his ſenſibility.

Theſe remarks immediately reſult from a late incident, which took place in a company, of which I was a member. The gueſts were aſſembled at the table of hoſpitality. Hilario was maſter of the feaſt, and Arabella directed the converſation. He cauſed the bottle to circulate with rapidity; whilſt ſhe imparted to the glaſs thoſe rays, which emanate from ſentiment and wit. Even ſtoiciſm muſt approve of that mirth which is improved by good humour, under the guidance of diſcretion.

It happened that a young lady, who was ſeated near Aurelia, whoſe beauty and good qualities exceeded her expectations in life,

(which however were far from being inconsiderable) whispered something in her ear. Immediately the sensibility of the latter was awakened. The blush diffused itself over her cheek, and even extended itself to her neck. The eyes of all the company were now directed to her. In vain her fan was called into action. The "celestial rosy red," instead of being diminished, was increased. Oppressed by her feelings, she quitted the table, and retired to an inner appartment, where she remained invisible to all but the family, for the remainder of the day.

Whilst some of the company were astonished at her agitation and abrupt departure, others imputed her conduct to its true cause; and their conclusions were confirmed, when, on casting their eyes on Ardelio, they perceived his countenance to be alternately pale and red. Instead of the soothings of sympathy, the burst of laughter was so often repeated, that Ardelio, after making a slight bow, retired from the house in as great confusion, as Aurelia had retreated to the chamber. A consultation was held, and all their friends were of opinion, that they entertained a mutual passion. The lady of the house followed Aurelia, and most earnestly requested to be informed of the cause of her agitation; but could extort no satisfactory answer. The young lady was possessed of equal susceptibility and caution; and pretended that her behaviour had arisen from a sudden indisposition. A friend followed Ardelio, who was equally uncommunicative.

But, as sufficient indications of reciprocal affection had been given, their friends, since both were truly amiable, interested themselves in accelerating their union. Ardelio was without difficulty induced to acknowledge, that he was sincerely and passionately in love; and Aurelia, after hesitating for a few days, made a similar confession. After a very short delay, they were happily married; and now convince their admiring acquaintance, that coquetry and levity wander from the goal of felicity, whilst permanent bliss may be rationally expected to result from the *blush*, and the other charms of sensibility.

D.

Description *of the Island of* Formosa.

[*From Benyowsky's Travels.*]

The island of Formosa is called by the Chinese, Touaiouai; and by the natives, Paccahimba. It is one of the finest and richest islands in the known world. The soil, in an infinity of places, produces two harvests of rice and other grain, with a great variety of trees, fruits, plants, animals, and birds. Cattle, sheep, goats, and poultry, are very abundant here. This island is intersected by great rivers, lakes, and waters, abounding with fish. It has many commodious harbours, bays, and sounds, on its coast. Its mountains produce gold, silver, cinnabar, white and brown copper; and likewise pit-coal.

The island of Formosa is divided into eight principalities, three of which, situated on the western side, are governed by the Chinese, and

peopled by the ſame nation. Every year an ambaſſador arrives from China, to receive tribute from theſe three provinces, which is raiſed by a poll-tax; and the emperor of China keeps five hundred veſſels for the purpoſe of annually exporting this tribute, which conſiſts of a large quantity of rice, wheat, millet, ſalt, beans, raw-ſilk, cotton, gold, ſilver, and mercury. The governors of theſe three provinces continually extend their poſſeſſions, either by alliance or intrigue, in ſuch a manner, that they have obtained ſeveral towns and diſtricts from their neighbours.

The inhabitants of the iſland are civilized, except thoſe who live on the eaſtern coaſts. They are of an effeminate diſpoſition, without any marks of courage; given to indolence, and are indebted to the goodneſs of the climate for their preſervation, as the ſoil ſupports them with very little labour. If we except the three Chineſe provinces, the mines on the Iſland are no where worked. They are contented to waſh the ſand to extract the gold out of it; and if they find pearls in the ſhells it is by mere accident. The common people of Formoſa are clothed only in blue cotton cloth; the towns are always built in the plains; and the villages are upon the mountains. The houſes of people of condition among them are extenſive and beautiful, but plain. Thoſe of the people are mere huts; and they are not permitted to build better. Moſt of them are covered with ſtraw and reeds, and are divided or ſeparated from each other by palliſadoes; their moveables are nothing more than what neceſſity has rendered indiſpenſible. In the houſes of men of rank, there are advanced rooms, in which they eat, receive ſtrangers, and divert themſelves. The apartments of the women are always ſeparate, and apart from the houſe. Though they are built within the court, no one is permitted to approach them. In this county there are no inns for travellers; but thoſe who are on a journey ſit themſelves down near the firſt houſe they come to, and the maſter of the houſe ſoon after receives them, and entertains them with rice and ſome fleſh-meat, with tobacco and tea.

The only commerce of the inhabitants of Formoſa is with ſome Japaneſe barks, who touch here, and with the Chineſe.

In each province there are five or ſix towns, which have eſtabliſhments for inſtructing youth in reading and writing. Their characters of writing, and for the expreſſion of numbers, are as difficult as thoſe of the Chineſe. Their pronunciation is ſometimes quick and elevated, and at other times ſlow and grave. They obtain their books from China. There are ſorcerers or diviners here, who have a great influence over the people. Their religion conſiſts in adoring one God, and in the performance of good offices to their neighbours. The provinces which are not conquered, are governed by princes or kings, who have abſolute power over their ſubjects. None of theſe laſt, without any exception of the great men, has any property in the lands. They receive the advantages of their lands, ſubject to the good pleaſure of the prince, as well as the gains they derive from the multitude of their ſlaves. Some of the principal people have as many as one, or even two thouſand. The princes always compoſe their councils of the principal military officers, and always keep their troops on foot.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

HISTORY *of the* AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

(Continued from page 318.)

1776. DURING the engagement, general Washington had passed over to Long-Island, time enough to witness, but too late to retrieve, the fortune of the day. He could not conceal his anguish, when he beheld the inextricable destruction in which so many of his bravest troops were involved. Perceiving the success of the enemy, and knowing their force to be powerful, he was apprehensive that, flushed with victory, they might attempt to force the American lines; he had therefore, during, and subsequent to, the engagement, drawn over a considerable part of his army from New-York, that he might be the better prepared for a resolute defence of the works on Long-Island.

He now earnestly wished that the ardour of the enemy might hurry them on to an immediate attack upon the lines, convinced that he was able to give them a warm reception. But they were neither so eager nor imprudent. They contented themselves with encamping at some distance, in front of the lines, on the evening of *Aug.* 27. the engagement; and the next morning they began to break ground in form, at about 500 yards distance from the most advanced redoubt. But although general Washington wished for an assault, he was by no means desirous of sustaining a formal siege. He knew that the great superiority of the British artillery would give them a decided advantage; and, consequently, that the works would be untenable, as soon as their batteries were fully opened. To consult on the measures proper to be taken, a council of war was now called; and it appearing that the dangers of continuing on the island were much greater than any advantages that could arise from it, an immediate retreat was determined upon. This was com- *Aug.* 30. menced the same evening, from the upper and lower ferries on the East-river; general Mc. Dougall conducting the embarkation at the one, and col. Knox at the other. But soon after the commencement of this important undertaking, an ebb-tide, and a strong wind at north east, which very much increased the rapidity of the unfavourable current, rendered the removal of all the troops, before morning, apparently impossible; the sail-boats could not be used, and the row-boats employed were not sufficiently numerous. In this embarrassed situation great was the despondency of the Americans. A removal of part of the troops would render those left behind an easy conquest to the enemy, and they must inevitably be captured to a man in the morning.

The embarkation was, notwithstanding, prosecuted with as much expedition as possible; and they were soon relieved, in a great degree, from their apprehensions, by a calm, which was providentially succeeded by a favourable breeze, about midnight. This enabled them to use the sail-boats, and made the passage from the island to New-York, direct, easy, and expeditious.

The paſſage had been ſo much retarded by the unfavourable wind and tide, that the laſt embarkation of the troops did not take place till ſix o'clock in the morning. But another favourable circumſtance providentially concealed them from the enemy; after day-light a cloſe fog hung over Long-Iſland, till the whole of the troops, with the moſt valuable of their ordnance and ſtores, had been ſafely tranſported acroſs the ferry. In about half an hour after the lines were abandoned, the fog cleared off; and the Britiſh beheld, with aſtoniſhment, the deſerted works, of which they took immediate poſſeſſion.

Such was the ſilence and order obſerved in this famous retreat, that 9000 men, with their baggage and ſtores, were withdrawn from their works, within a few hundred yards of the enemy, conveyed to the water ſide, embarked, and tranſported acroſs a ferry about a mile long, without being diſcovered. Thoſe who are beſt acquainted with the difficulty of performing ſuch movements, in a quiet and orderly manner, even in day-light, and remote from an enemy, will be the firſt to acknowledge, that this retreat ſhould hold a high place among military tranſactions.

Only one irregularity occurred, during the embarkation. Orders were ſent about day break, to general Mifflin, who commanded the covering party, to ſend down a particular regiment to the ferry; owing to a miſtake of the officer who was entruſted with theſe orders, general Mifflin quitted the lines, and, with the whole of the covering party, came down to the ferry. The miſtake being diſcovered, he returned to the lines, after they had been abandoned about three quarters of an hour. On this occaſion, the fog was eminently ſerviceable to the Americans, in concealing this ill-timed deſertion of the works. The commander in chief remained on the iſland, till general Mifflin, with the covering party, finally abandoned the lines, at ſix o'clock.

A few days after the evacuation of Long-Iſland, general Sullivan was ſent, on parole, with a meſſage from lord Howe to congreſs, importing that though he could not at preſent treat with that aſſembly in the character they had aſſumed, yet he was deſirous of a conference with ſome of their members, in their private capacity; that he and his brother were veſted with full powers to compromiſe the diſpute between Great Britain and America, upon terms mutually advantageous; that he earneſtly wiſhed a compact might now be ſettled, before a deciſive blow was ſtruck, and when neither party could complain of being forced into the agreement; that were congreſs diſpoſed to treat, many things which they had not yet aſked, might and ought to be granted; and that if, upon the conference, any probable ground of an accommodation appeared, the authority of congreſs would be afterwards acknowledged, in order that the treaty might be rendered complete and valid.

The anſwer to this meſſage was, that congreſs, being the repreſentatives of the free and independent ſtates of America, could not with propriety ſend any of their members to confer with his lordſhip, in their private characters; but that ever deſirous of eſtabliſhing peace on equitable terms, they would ſend a committee of their body, to know whether he had any authority to treat with perſons

authorized by congreſs for that purpoſe, what that authority was, and to hear ſuch propoſitions as he ſhould think fit to make.

Dr. Franklin, John Adams, and Edward Rutledge were appointed a committee, on this occaſion; and in a few days they met lord Howe, on Staten-Iſland. A lengthy conference enſued; but to no purpoſe. The committee returned, and reported to congreſs an account of their conference, by which it appeared that the commiſſioners had no other authority than was expreſſed in the act of parliament, namely—that of granting pardons, with ſuch exceptions as they ſhould think proper to make; and of declaring America, or any part of it, to be in the king's peace, on ſubmiſſion.

Lord Howe had concluded the conference on his part, by expreſſing his regard for America, and the extreme pain with which he ſhould be obliged to diſtreſs thoſe whom he ſo much eſteemed. Dr. Franklin thanked him for the regard he expreſſed, and aſſured him that the Americans would gratefully endeavour to leſſen, as much as poſſible, whatever pain he might feel on their account, by exerting their utmoſt abilities to take good care of themſelves.

The friends of independence rejoiced that this interview produced nothing prejudicial to their hopes. The reſult of the conference was publiſhed, by order of congreſs, that the people might be made acquainted with the powers of the commiſſioners, which were only to grant pardons; and that they might be convinced of the neceſſity of a firm and united perſeverance in aſſerting the independence of their country, as nothing but the attainment of this could eſtabliſh and ſecure their liberties.

All hopes of reconciliation being now at an end, the Howes reſolved to make amends for the ill ſucceſs that had attended them, in their civil capacity, by the vigour of their military operations; and the Americans were actively employed in preparing, to repel the attacks of the enemy, in whatever place they might be made. This, however, was a matter of no ſmall difficulty to the commander in chief, who was diſtreſſed exceedingly by the ſerious and alarming conſequences to which the late defeat on Long-Iſland had given riſe. That diſaſter had very much diſpirited the troops. The militia, ſtruck with diſmay, became impatient to return to their homes; and actually went off by companies at a time. An entire diſregard of order and ſubordination pervaded the whole army, and rendered it little better than a mob; ſo pernicious was the example of the militia, even amongſt that part of the army which was compoſed of regular troops. Thus ſituated, it became neceſſary for general Waſhington ſtudiouſly to avoid any engagement which might be attended with the moſt diſtant hazard of another defeat. To accuſtom the men to military duty, and give them a portion of that mechanical courage which is inſpired by a familiarity with arms, he exerciſed them in an almoſt continual firing upon the ſhips in the harbour, from a chain of poſts which had been erected along the ſhore.

But the commander in chief had another, and, if poſſible, a ſtill more forcible reaſon, for avoiding a deciſive engagement. The Americans had entertained ſome hopes of a reconciliation, at the beginning of the year 1776, and had therefore formed their plans of de-

fence on a mere temporary system; but now, that those hopes were vanished, and independence was the great object in view, sound policy suggested the propriety of acting rather on the defensive than otherwise for the present, that the remainder of the campaign might be wasted away to the best advantage, and congress might gain time to embody a strong regular army for the next year. Delay, therefore, was in some degree victory to the Americans.

New-York island being continually threatened with an attack, and the enemy having it in their power to force their way up the East-River, by means of their ships of war, the Americans were in some danger of being surrounded. For the purpose of a safe retreat, therefore, the communication between the continent and the island, by the way of King's-Bridge, was secured, by strongly fortifying that passage, and erecting considerable works on both sides of the water. The public stores were moved to Dobb's ferry, about 26 miles from New-York; 12,000 men were ordered to the northern extremity of New-York island; 4500 were left for the defence of the city; and the remainder were posted between the city and King's-Bridge, with orders to support either, as exigencies might require.

General and lord Howe, having concerted their plan of descent upon New-York island, made sundry movements with their ships of war, with a view to divide and distract the attention of the Americans. Various parts of the island seemed to be equally threatened. It at length appeared pretty evident, to general Washington, that the enemy meant to throw their army between part of his in New-York and its environs and the remainder about King's-bridge. He therefore removed his quarters ten miles from the city, to the vicinity of Fort-Washington; and five ships of war having proceeded up the East-river, New-York was immediately evacuated.

Sept. 15. The British landed a considerable body of troops, under cover of their ships of war, between Kepp's-bay and Turtle-bay. A breast-work had been erected at this place, and a party were stationed there to oppose the British, should they attempt to land. But the first appearance of danger was to these a signal for running away. They fled with precipitation, and in the utmost confusion. General Washington, who had been alarmed by the firing of the men of war, came up, and attempted to rally the flying troops; but all his efforts were fruitless. They even deserted their general, and left him in a very hazardous situation. Exasperated by this dastardly conduct, he was inattentive to the danger which threatened him; his mind was too much engrossed by the calamitous situation of his country, to admit of one moment's regard for his own safety. Pressed by a powerful force, which he had not the means of repelling, a mortifying train of approaching defeats and disasters presented themselves to his mind; for a moment he seemed resolutely determined to meet an honourable death, rather than be exposed to infamy, by the disgraceful conduct of troops in whom he could no longer confide. His attendants at length took hold of his bridle reins, and obliged him to retire.

On the following day a skirmish took place, between a body of the enemy, commanded by brigadier Leslie, and some American detach-

ments, under col. Knowlton of Connecticut, and major Leitch of Virginia. The colonel was killed, and the major wounded; but their men behaved with great bravery, and came off victorious. Moſt of theſe were the ſame men who had diſgraced themſelves on the preceding day, by running away. Aſhamed of their miſconduct, they had obtained leave to ſerve as volunteers, that they might have an opportunity of retrieving their honour.

Shortly after general Howe took poſſeſſion of New-York, a dreadful fire broke out, and conſumed upwards of one thouſand houſes.

With a view of cutting off the communication between general Waſhington and the eaſtern ſtates, and alſo with an intention of falling upon the rear of the Americans about King's-Bridge, cutting off their ſupplies, and forcing them into an engagement upon diſadvantageous terms, moſt of the troops were embarked in flat-bottomed boats, and landed on Frog's-neck, ſituated on the continent, towards Connecticut. Here they were reinforced by 5000 German troops, who had juſt arrived from Europe.

The ſituation of the Americans was ſo extremely critical, that it was determined, in a council of war, to quit their preſent poſition, and poſſeſs themſelves of a chain of high grounds, extending from the vicinity of King's-bridge almoſt to the White-plains. This was immediately put in execution, and the troops formed a line of ſmall entrenched camps, occupying every height and ſtrong ground, and ſeparated from the enemy, who were now on their march, by the Brunx, which ran in front of the high ground on which the Americans were poſted. This poſition effectually ſecured a paſſage in rear of the army, for the removal of the baggage and ſtores up the country. Skirmiſhing parties frequently croſſed the Brunx, and harraſſed the Britiſh on their march. At length the royal army approached towards White-plains, and poſted themſelves on the oppoſite ſide of the Brunx. The Americans now collected their main force at White-plains, where they were very advantageouſly ſituated, both from their entrenchments and the nature of the ground, their right being covered by the windings of the Brunx.

A general action was now expected to take place every hour. General Mc. Dougall, with 1600 men, had taken poſt on a riſing ground, at ſome diſtance from, and on the right of, the main body.

Oct. 28. Here he was attacked about noon, by a Britiſh detachment, under general Leſlie; and a ſevere, though irregular engagement, in which ſome hundreds fell on both ſides, was carried on, till the cloſe of the day. During the engagement, the American baggage was moved off, in full view of the enemy. The Britiſh lay upon their arms all night, expecting to attack the American lines next morning; but general Waſhington had ſo much improved the ſtrength of the works, during the night, that when the morning came they thought it prudent to defer the attack, till they ſhould be reinforced by a part of the troops left on New-York iſland.—The reinforcements arrived; and the movements of the enemy indicated an intention to make a vigorous attack. But to riſk a formal engagement was no part of the ſyſtem formed by general Waſhington; he therefore retired farther up the country, to North-Caſtle.

General Howe, finding himſelf baffled in every attempt to bring the Americans to an engagement that might prove deciſive, turned his attention to the diſpoſſeſſing them of Fort-Waſhington, the only poſt which they now occupied in New-York iſland, ſituated on the weſtern ſide of the iſland, not far from King's-bridge, and almoſt oppoſite to Fort-Lee, on the Jerſey-ſhore. When it was determined to give up the poſts about King's-bridge, general Lee had been very urgent in preſſing the expediency of evacuating Fort-Waſhington alſo. The commander in chief inclined to the ſame opinion; but in conſequence of the arguments of general Greene, in ſupport of a contrary opinion, it had been retained, and was garriſoned by 3000 men under the command of col. Magaw. General Greene's principal arguments were, that the poſſeſſion of this fort would divert the attention of a conſiderable body of the enemy, and thus their main force would be weakened; that, in conjuction with Fort-Lee, it would ſecure the tranſportation of proviſions, and ſtores, up the North-river, for the American army; and that as it was thought politic to waſte the campaign without, on the one hand, coming to a general action, or on the other, ſuffering the enemy to over-run the country, it would be prudent to throw every poſſible impediment in their way, that might delay them in their career. It was further obſerved, that the garriſon could be brought off, at any time, by boats from the Jerſey ſide of the river.

On the 12th of November, general Waſhington, with part of the army, croſſed the North-river, leaving general Lee with 7500 men at North-Caſtle, and took poſt in the neighbourhood of Fort-Lee. On the 15th, colonel Magaw was ſummoned, by the enemy, to ſurrender Fort-Waſhington; but he replied, that he would defend it to the laſt extremity. Preparations were now made for an aſſault, which however could not be carried into execution before the next morning. Had it not been imprudently determined to defend the fort, the garriſon might have been brought off in the night.

Nov. 16. In the morning, generals Waſhington, Putnam, Greene, col. Knox, and ſome other officers, croſſed the river, and were going up to the fort, when it was perceived that the enemy were advancing, and conſequently that they would be in danger of being ſhut in. They therefore returned.

The Britiſh attacked the lines in four different quaters. After a ſevere conflict, they carried the out-works, and approached within a hundred yards of the fort. The garriſon capitulated, and 2700 men became priſoners of war. Though the enemy took the fort they ſuſtained a heavy loſs. Not leſs than 1200 of their troops were killed or wounded; ſo vigorouſly was the place defended.

The next object that engaged the attention of the enemy was Fort-Lee. Lord Cornwallis had nearly executed a plan for encloſing the men between the Hackinſack and North rivers; but they were ſaved by a precipitate retreat acroſs the Hackinſack, where they joined general Waſhington. The greater part of their cannon, ſtores, &c. fell into the hands of the Britiſh. The proſpects of America were at this period gloomy in the extreme. The loſs of men captured at Fort-

Waſhington was ſeverely felt; had thoſe ſtationed at Fort-Lee ſhared the ſame fate, it is highly probable that the royal army might have carried all before them.

(*To be continued.*)

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

An ESSAY *on* PUPPYISM.

IN diſcuſſing this almoſt inexhauſtible ſubject, I mean not to inſinuate an idea, prejudicial to the acknowledged characters of bull dogs, ſo denominated, nor to thoſe of ſpaniels, pointers, or even the reſpectable quadruped, uſually denominated a lap-dog. Great are their merits; and I ſcorn to aim at diveſting them of the ſmalleſt particle of their reputation. Let thoſe be ravenous, and theſe be clamorous; yet they may be ſilenced and ſubdued. There are ways and means (as the politicians ſay) of reducing minds to one ſtandard. This argument may be depended on, except in one reſpect—Beware how you invade the rights of a *Puppy!*

Some puppies have four legs; but the puppy who preſents himſelf immediately to our notice ſtands on two. The ſteps of the ladder of his ambition are not regular. He always totters, before he can reaſonably hope to arrive at the ſummit; and the ſummit he never can attain. But puppyiſm is conſpicuous throughout the world. We may trace it in every department. How many puppies have Homer and Herodotus produced? Tibullus has inſtructed thouſands to whine in elegy; and Horace has taught at leaſt as many to yelp in odes, or to bark in ſatire.

What partial barkings have prevailed in various parts of the world? I truly eſteem Diogenes, who acknowledged himſelf to be a ſnarler, or, to make uſe of another word, a Cynic; and therefore a partaker of the virtues of a puppy. I will not concede the merit of puppyiſm to Plato, except when he repoſed himſelf (perhaps for good purpoſes) in the bowers of Dionyſius. He ſhowed his teeth, and even grumbled, and howled. But what could his howling, or his grumbling, avail? He was at length reduced to the neceſſity of retiring to his native country; otherwiſe he might have expired (ſuch is the power, and ſuch is the caprice of tyranny) like a mad dog.

Why need I mention Ariſtotle, Alcibiades, Pericles, and many other Grecian worthies? They picked the bone of patriotiſm, till it was quite bare; and one of them, at leaſt, would have extracted the marrow, had he known how. But the Romans, in a great meaſure, ſaved the Grecians that trouble. Thoſe overgrown puppies laid their paws on every thing human and divine. All was ſubmitted to their power; and from the maſtiff, Cæſar, to the laſt imperial cur, the world acknowledged the power of enraged puppyiſm.

So vaſt is my ſubject, that thought ruſhes after thought, like "wave impelling wave". But let me, for a moment, confine my ideas to the moſt extraordinary puppy that ever worried the world. His name was Alexander, a native of Greece; he extended his ambitious views

over the then known parts of the globe. Accompanied by a pack of blood-hounds, ſuch as perhaps have never been equalled, he exceeded in devaſtation the moſt ferocious tyger; and one of his ſubordinate puppies is recorded to have torn out with his right fore-paw, wrapped up in a towel, the tongue, heart, and liver of an enraged lion. If I rightly recollect, his name was Lyſimachus.

But the grand puppy, (I mean the above-mentioned Alexander) who had let ſlip the *dogs of war* on the univerſe, died like a puppy as he was—raving mad. Honeſt Nat. Lee, who was a poetical puppy, and occaſionally afflicted with canine madneſs, has done juſtice to his hero; and ſuch was his conviction of the bleſſings attendant on this furor, that I cannot forbear quoting from memory a paſſage in his works, which has been reiterated with rapture by thouſands of puppies—

Sure there's a ſecret joy in being mad,
Which none but mad DOGS know!

The puppies which have been recorded ſince the period of Roman greatneſs, have been ſo various, that I ſhall only juſt hint at their actions, without detailing their names. They grinned and barked; but after a ſhort time were incapable of biting. Moſt of thoſe puppies, however, created terror in the world. Our modern puppies are apparently of a milder ſpecies; and are probably ſpaniels.

When Damon, for form's ſake, kneels to Chloe, and adores the tip of her finger, what is he but a puppy; ſince conſcious, that ſhe will not reject his adulation? When Muſidorus, unaſked, rehearſes his ſtrains in company, what ſhall we call him?—The queſtion, I think, is eaſily anſwered.—

Thus it appears, that puppies cannot only bark, growl, whine, and fawn, but ſometimes roar like a lion. Nay they even imitate the plaintive accents of the hyena. How many puppies crouch at the feet of thoſe, at whoſe throats they wiſh to fly? How many, who abound in gall, affect the meekneſs of the dove?—But, generally ſpeaking, the moſt ſnarling, and at the ſame time, the moſt inſidious of all curs, is a puppy in office; fawning, like a ſpaniel, upon thoſe on whom his advancement, or continuance in office depends; but ever ſnarling at, and endeavouring to prey upon, the vitals of all who may be in his power.

How many puppies in poetry, and the other arts, have we had! I forbear to conſult the documents of ſound criticiſm, leſt I ſhould find the names of ſome authors, whom I have been taught to venerate.

Yet it may be affirmed, that puppyiſm is in ſome degree productive of advantage. Let us reflect on the various arts and ſciences; dreſs, politeneſs, and the benefits which they confer; and, after due conſideration, we ſhall be obliged to confeſs, that puppyiſm is beneficial to the mechanical arts. Are there not alſo puppies in aſtronomy, poetry, metaphyſics, politics, &c.? There certainly are; and the printer will doubtleſs agree with me that they are uſeful, inaſmuch as they contribute to the emolument of the preſs.

Without fawning, I am
A friend to well diſpoſed puppies;
PHILOCYON

Philadelphia. 1791.

Account *of the* ORANG-OUTANG.

(By Mr. Smellie.)

BESIDE man, many other animals are capable of being inſtructed. The ape-kind, and eſpecially the larger ſpecies of them, imitate the actions of men without any inſtruction. This imitation they are enabled to perform with the greater exactneſs, on account of their ſtructure. The orang-outang, a native of the ſouthern regions of Africa and India, is as tall and as ſtrong as a man. He has no tail. His face is flat. His arms, hands, toes, and nails, are perfectly ſimilar to ours. He walks conſtantly on end; and the features of his viſage make a near approach to thoſe of the human countenance. He has a beard on his chin, and no more hair on his body than men have when in a ſtate of nature. He knows how to bear arms, to attack his enemies with ſtones, and to defend himſelf with a club. Of all the apes, the orang-outang, or *wild man* as he is called by the Indians, has the greateſt reſemblance to man, both in the ſtructure of his body and in his manners. There are two ſuppoſed ſpecies of orang-outang, a larger and a ſmaller. The latter has been ſeen ſeveral times brought to Europe, and accurate deſcriptions have been given both of his external and internal parts. But, with regard to the larger kind, who is ſaid to exceed the ordinary ſtature of man, we have nothing to rely on but the relations of travellers. Bontius, who was chief phyſician in Batavia, affirms expreſsly, that he ſaw, with admiration, ſeveral individuals of this ſpecies walking on their two feet. Among others, he remarked a female, who ſeemed to have a ſenſe of modeſty, who covered her face with her hands when men approached her with whom ſhe was unacquainted, who wept, groaned, and ſeemed to want nothing of humanity but the faculty of ſpeech. Many other ſurpriſing actions performed by this animal, are recorded by different voyagers, which it is unneceſſary to repeat, eſpecially as we have a ſufficient number of facts atteſted by unequivocal evidence. The count de Buffon, with much probability, conſiders what are called the large and ſmall orang-outangs to be the ſame ſpecies of animals; for thoſe hitherto brought to Europe were very young, and had not acquired one half of their ſtature.

"The orang-outang,' ſays Buffon, 'which I ſaw, walked always on two feet, even when carrying things of conſiderable weight. His air was melancholy, his movements meaſured, his diſpoſition gentle, and very different from thoſe of other apes. He had neither the impatience of the Barbary apes, the maliciouſneſs of the baboon, nor the extravagance of the monkeys. It may be alledged that he had the benefit of inſtruction; but the apes, which I ſhall compare with him, were educated in the ſame manner. Signs and words alone were ſufficient to make our orang-outang act: but the baboon required a cudgel, and other apes a whip; for none of them would obey without blows. I have ſeen this animal preſent his hand to conduct the people who came to viſit him, and walk as gravely along with them as if he had formed a part of the company. I have ſeen him

ſit down at table, unfold his towel, wipe his lips, uſe a ſpoon or fork to carry the victuals to his mouth, pour his liquor into a glaſs, and make it touch that of the perſon who drank along with him. When invited to drink tea, he brought a cup and a ſaucer, placed them on the table, put in ſugar, poured out the tea, and allowed it to cool before he drank it. All theſe actions he performed without any other inſtigation than the ſigns or verbal orders of his maſter, and often of his own accord. He did no injury to any perſon: He even approached company with circumſpection, and preſented himſelf as if he wanted to be careſſed. He was very fond of dainties, which every body gave him: and, as his breaſt was diſeaſed, and he was afflicted with a teaſing cough, this quantity of ſweetmeats undoubtedly contributed to ſhorten his life. He lived one ſummer in Paris, and died in London the following winter. He eat almoſt every thing; but preferred ripe and dried fruits to all other kinds of food. He drank a little wine; but ſpontaneouſly left it for milk, tea, or mild liquors.'

M. de la Broſſe purchaſed from a negro, two orang-outangs whoſe age exceeded not twelve months. 'Theſe animals,' he remarks, 'have the inſtinct of ſitting at table like men. They eat every kind of food without diſtinction. They uſe a knife, a fork, or a ſpoon, to cut or lay hold of what is put upon their plate. They drink wine and other liquors. We carried them abroad. At table, when they wanted any thing, they made themſelves be underſtood by the cabin boy: and, when the boy refuſed to give them what they demanded, they ſometimes became enraged, ſeized him by the arm, bit and threw him down. The male was ſeized with ſickneſs in the road. He made himſelf be attended as a human being. He even was twice bled in the right arm: and whenever he found himſelf afterwards in the ſame condition he held out his arm to be bled, as if he knew that he had formerly received benefit from that operation.'

We are informed, by Francis Pyrard, 'that, in the province of Sierra-Leona, there is a ſpecies of animals called *baris* (the orang-outang) who are ſtrong and well limbed, and ſo induſtrious, that when properly trained and fed, they work like ſervants; that they generally walk on the two hind feet; that they pound any ſubſtances in a mortar; and that they go to bring water from the river in ſmall pitchers, which they carry full on their heads. But, when they arrive at the door, if the pitchers are not ſoon taken off, they allow them to fall; and, when they perceive the pitcher overturned and broken, they weep and lament.' With regard to the education of theſe animals, the teſtimony of Schotton correſponds with that of Pyrard. 'They are taken,' ſays he, 'with ſnares, taught to walk on their hind-feet, and to uſe their fore-feet as hands, in performing different operations, as rinſing glaſſes, carrying drink round the company, turning a ſpit,' &c. Guat informs us that he 'ſaw at Java a very extraordinary ape. It was a female. She was very tall, and often walked erect on her hind-feet. On theſe occaſions, ſhe concealed with her hands the part which diſtinguiſh the ſex. She made her bed very neatly every day, lay upon her ſide, and covered herſelf with the bed-clothes. When her head ached, ſhe bound it up with her handkerchief; and it was amuſing to ſee her thus hooded in bed.' I could relate many o-

ther little articles which appeared to be extremely ſingular. But I admired them not ſo much as the multitude; becauſe, as I knew the deſign of bringing her to Europe to be exhibited as a ſhew, I was inclined to think that ſhe had been taught many of theſe monkey tricks, which the people conſidered as being natural to the animal. She died in our ſhip, about the latitude of the Cape of Good-Hope. The figure of this ape had a very great reſemblance to that of man.

We have now enumerated the principal facts regarding this extraordinary animal, which have been related by voyagers of credit, and by thoſe who have ſeen and examined him in Europe; and ſhall only remark, that, notwithſtanding the great ſimilarity of his ſtructure and organs to thoſe of the human ſpecies, his genius and talents ſeem to be very limited. The form of his body enables him to imitate every human action. But, though he has the organs of ſpeech, he is deſtitute of articulate language. If, however, he were domeſticated, and proper pains beſtowed for inſtructing him, he might unqueſtionably be taught to articulate. But, ſuppoſing this point to be obtained, if he remained incapable of reflection, if he were unable to comprehend the meaning of words, or to diſcover by his expreſſions a degree of intellect greatly ſuperior to the brute creation, which I imagine would be the caſe, he could never, as ſome authors have held forth, be exalted to the diſtinguiſhed rank of human beings.

The docility and ſagacity of animals have always been conſidered as wonderful. But this wonder is partly the effect of inattention; for, though man is unqueſtionably the chief of the animal creation, the other animals, according to the number of inſtincts, or, which amounts to the ſame thing, according to the mental powers with which nature has endowed them, comparatively approach to, or recede from the ſagacity and genius of the human ſpecies. The whole is a graduated ſcale of intelligence. A philoſopher ſhould, therefore, contemplate and admire the whole, but ſhould never be ſurpriſed at any partial exhibitions of the general ſcene of intellect and animation.

On the Mode *of making a cheap, uſeful, and durable* Bread *from* Potatoes, *particularly calculated for long* Voyages,

From a paper read to the French Society for the Promotion of Agriculture, by the Marquis de Bouillon.

POTATOES contain two ſubſtances; the one a true ſtarch, the other a parenchymatous matter of a peculiar nature. The mode of ſeparating theſe has long been known. The proceſs is very ſimple: it conſiſts in raſping the potatoes into a ſieve, placed in a veſſel of water: the ſtarch, fine and heavy, ſinks to the bottom: the ſuperincumbent water is decanted, and freſh poured on, till the powder is become perfectly white: it is then dried. What remains on the

sieve is the parenchymatous substance, which, being coarser, will not pass through. This is usually given to the hogs; but it may be applied to a much more useful purpose, if treated in the following manner:

Let the parenchyma, prepared as above, be put into a press, and as much as possible of the water squeezed out. Having formed it into cakes, let them be put into an oven gently heated, and kept there till almost dry. They are then to be taken out, and the oven heated nearly as hot as for baking common bread; when they are to be replaced, and remain till the oven is cold. In this state they are lightly coloured. They may be kept any length of time; they are subject to no alteration; and are not liable to be eaten by rats. The Marquis kept some biscuits of this kind, and some flour which he made of the parenchyma well dried, upwards of ten years, without their having undergone the least change. Eaten by themselves, they are hard, though not more difficult to chew than common sea-biscuit. They may also be dissolved by boiling in water, or soup, with which they mix like rice, vermicelli, &c. Their nutritious quality is incontestable.

If no part be wanted for starch, the whole may be taken and treated as above. But in this case some trouble might be saved by grinding the potatoes, in the same manner as we do apples for making cyder, and then expressing as much as possible of the watery parts which they naturally contain, when they may be dried and baked as above directed.

As it is well known that potatoes kept in their natural state are not eatable when they begin to vegetate, the process above described may be employed to preserve a most extensively useful vegetable for the table.

Observations *respecting the* Religious Sect *commonly called* Quakers.

[*From Dr. Wendeborn's view of England.*]

It is to be regretted, says Dr. Wendeborn, that this sect is rather on the decline. In church history very few, if any, I believe, will be found, where the purity of morals, and that rectitude and virtue which are so indispensibly requisite to the happiness of human society, have been shown more strongly and more generally than among the Quakers. When I first came to England, I entertained all the prejudices which are so prevalent against them among other sects. I viewed them much in the same light with which they are generally regarded abroad, from ignorance and pious pride, by the zealots of all the three religious sects which are predominant in Germany. But how great was my surprise, when, after more enquiry and acquaintance, I found them better formed after the spirit of true Christianity, than those who make it their business to decry them. I by no means

intend to pronounce a panegyric upon the Quakers; I do not approve many of the opinions which are said to be theirs. The pretensions to the moving or the impulse of the spirit, they should have renounced long ago; for it seems to be a slur upon that good sense which is otherwise so prevalent among them. But their morals, their education, their early subduing the passions, their conduct in life, their principles, and their manner of thinking, in short, their moral character, how much were it to be wished that it might become general, and be adopted by all sects whatever.

If this sect had originated formerly among the ancient Greeks, and if Fox the shoe-maker had been the founder of a philosophical sect of antiquity, instead of a religious one in modern times, he would have acquired a great name, and his followers would have been deemed the best among all the philosophers. Supposing we forgot for a moment that we are speaking of the Quakers, and related what follows as the tenets of the ancient philosophers, who not only taught but really practised them:—All men are to live in peace and unanimity together, which not only their reason, but even their feelings demand of them. To teach this, we have no occasion to support a particularly dressed class of people, and feed them with the tenth of industry. Every one is to set a good example, and to become a teacher of that virtue which promotes his own happiness and that of the community. What we wish men should do to us, we should do even so to them. We are to avoid those things which perplex the understanding, and do not mend the heart, but produce altercation and strife; for as our time is so short, we ought to make the best use of it, and apply it to the best purposes for our own happiness and that of others. We are to combat and subdue our passions early, and to accustom ourselves to patience and self-denial; for we have much occasion for both in the course of our lives. We are to be charitable, and to assist, if we have it in our power, the infirm and the necessitous, without being forced to it by law. We are to speak the truth from inclination, sincerely at all times, without calling the Deity to witness, to remove the suspicion of uttering falsehood and untruth.

Men are all by nature equal, and possessed of the same rights, and every one is to endeavour to do good; nobody, therefore, is to oppress each other; but they are to live together peaceably and with forbearance, without training up a class of men for the purpose of slaughtering others. We are to dress ourselves according to cleanliness and decency; but not to betray the vanity of the heart, and emptiness of the head, by folly and idle show. On the day which is set apart for divine worship, we are to collect our thoughts, to meditate, and examine our lives, and to engage our devout attention in contemplating the perfections of the Deity, and his kindness towards us; we are to remember our frailties and transgressions, and, being ashamed of them, we are to renew our good resolutions and intentions, endeavouring to improve, by daily practice, in virtue and in true happiness:—supposing we met in Plutarch, or in Diogenes Laertius, with an account of philosophers who professed not only such doctrines, but practised them with unremitted care, would it

not be ſaid, that they really deſerved that name? And this ſect aroſe only in the laſt century, and continues ſtill; and their chief religious tenets are thoſe which I have juſt mentioned.

The ORIGIN *of* DUELLING.

THE cuſtom of duelling came originally from the northern nations of Europe, among whom it was uſual to decide all their controverſies by arms. Both the accuſer and accuſed gave pledges to the judges on their reſpective behalf; and the cuſtom prevailed ſo far among the Germans, Danes, and Franks, that none were excuſed from it but women, ſick people, cripples, and ſuch as were under twenty-one years of age or above ſixty.— Even eccleſiaſtics, prieſts, and monks, were obliged to find champions to fight in their ſtead. The puniſhment of the vanquiſhed was either death, by hanging or beheading; or, mutilation of members, according to the circumſtances of the caſe. Duels were at firſt admitted, not only on criminal occaſions, but on ſome civil ones, for the maintenance of rights to eſtates, and the like.

The general practice of duelling took its riſe in the year 1527, at the breaking up of a treaty between the emperor Charles V. and Francis I. The former deſired Francis's herald to acquaint his ſovereign, that he would henceforth conſider him not only as a baſe violator of public faith, but as a ſtranger to the honour and integrity becoming a gentleman. Francis, too high-ſpirited to bear ſuch an imputation, had recourſe to an uncommon expedient to vindicate his character. He inſtantly ſent back the herald with a cartel of defiance, in which he gave the emperor the lie in form, challenged him to ſingle combat, requiring him to name the time and place of the encounter, and the weapons with which he choſe to fight. Charles, as he was not inferior to his rival in ſpirit or bravery, readily accepted the challenge; but after ſeveral meſſages, concerning the arrangement of all the circumſtances relative to the combat, accompanied with mutual reproaches bordering on the moſt indecent ſcurrility, all thoughts of this duel, more becoming the heroes of romance than the two greateſt monarchs of their age, were entirely laid aſide.

The example of two perſonages ſo illuſtrious, drew ſuch general attention, and carried with it ſo much authority, that it had conſiderable influence in introducing an important change in manners all over Europe.—— Duels, as has already been obſerved, had been long permitted by the laws of all the European nations: and, forming a part of their juriſprudence, were authoriſed by the magiſtrate on many occaſions, as the moſt proper method of terminating queſtions with regard to property, or deciding in thoſe which regarded crimes. But ſingle combats being conſidered as ſolemn appeals to the omniſcience and juſtice of the Supreme Being, they were allowed only in public cauſes, according to the preſcription of law, and carried on in a judicial form. Men, accuſtomed to this manner of deciſion

in courts of juſtice, were naturally led to apply it to perſonal and private quarrels. Duels, which at firſt could be appointed by the civil judge alone, were fought without the interpoſition of his authority, and in caſes to which the laws did not extend. The tranſaction between Charles and Francis ſtrongly countenanced this practice. Upon every affront or injury which ſeemed to touch his honour, a gentleman thought himſelf entitled to draw his ſword, and call on his adverſary to make reparation.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

PRUDENCE *and* ARTIFICE; *An Allegory.*

IN the earlier ages of the world, Prudence, though ſometimes oppoſed by Paſſion, maintained her authority with decent dignity. She cauſed the foreſt to deſcend, and the field to be cultivated. Terrified by her, wild beaſts were driven to caves, and forced to retire from the habitations of men. Induſtry, however rude, was under her auſpices revered. Cottages were raiſed, which, due allowances being made for inexperience, might vie with the palaces of the great in later ages; and, although arts were in ſome degree encouraged, ſimplicity was her favourite object.

It muſt pleaſe the reflecting mind to review the condition of human nature in thoſe days, although fallen from its primitive innocence. It muſt be acknowledged, however, that ambition was the cauſe of the ſufferings of the human ſpecies. Man, in a ſtate of ſimplicity, ought to have indulged but few deſires, becauſe his wants were comparatively few. Earth almoſt ſpontaneouſly produced her fruits; and, although ſome exertion was neceſſary, labour was unknown.

But after the grand delinquency, as nature was in a great meaſure changed, it was found expedient to have recourſe to toil, and to call into action, the latent reſources of the mind. Immediately from heaven deſcended Prudence. Serene was her deportment, and modeſtly captivating her form. Her ſtep was at once pleaſing and majeſtick. Alternately her eyes were raiſed to the firmament and directed to earth. She taught the duties of religion, and the offices of humanity. Cultivation proſpered under her auſpices. Labour now exerted every nerve. The yellow harveſt beamed over extenſive fields, and the orchard glowed with all the luxuriance of autumn, favoured by ſpring, and perfected by ſummer.

Houſe was added to houſe, and conſtituted the infant village, which riſing into magnitude, was matured into the city! Arts were invented and purſued, whilſt the human family encreaſed with amazing rapidity.

Hitherto, with ſome few exceptions, Prudence had preſided over the hearts of the ſons and daughters of Adam. Induſtry was eſteemed, love was reſpected, and matrimony revered. Such were the

bleſſings which proceeded from Prudence, under the guidance of religion. But, as the ſpecies increaſed, how altered was the ſcene! Artifice, one of the daughters of Lucifer, aroſe from hell, in order to defeat the benevolence of Prudence, who was the offspring of heaven. Frequent were their diſſenoſins; and the human race was divided by the ſound virtue of the one, and the vile machinations of the other. Frequent advances were made to unite them, by Policy, the child of Earth; but they all proved ineffectual. To prevent an union of ſentiment and action, Prudence called Wiſdom to her aid, and Artifice implored the aſſiſtance of Cunning. Thus the deſigns of Policy were fruſtrated; and the rivals have continued, and muſt ever continue diſunited.

Let us endeavour to trace their progreſs through ſucceeding ages. Prudence, ſtill acting in concert with Wiſdom, the deſcendant of Experience, directed her views to promote univerſal bliſs, as far as was conſiſtent with human depravity; and, although her ſucceſs has not been adequate to her exertions, they claim our regard, and demand our gratitude. By her we have been retrieved from a ſtate of ſavage barbarity, and have made improvements in all the ſciences and uſeful arts.

Artifice, ſtill acting in conjunction with Cunning, has, in ſome degree, degraded our nature. Bold are her views; but inſidious are her proceedings. Whilſt ſhe agitates the councils of monarchs, and convulſes republicks, ſhe ever aſſumes the ſemblance of complacency; and, whilſt ſmiles ſeem to adorn her countenance, rage rankles in her heart. Her malevolence extends to families. The conjugal tie, the bonds of brotherhood and friendſhip, ſhe has frequently diſſolved. Whilſt we therefore deprecate her malice, and abhor her wiles, let us expect happineſs from Virtue, and pay due attention to Prudence.

JUVENIS.

Princeton, 1791.

CURIOUS INCITEMENT *to* SLAVERY.

GARCILASSO de la Vega relates, that a Spaniſh prieſt, perceiving that the Peruvians choſe rather to hang themſelves, than to labour in the mines, addreſſed them in the following words—"You wiſh to hang yourſelves, my friends, that you may not be obliged to labour: ſince that is the caſe, I ſhall hang myſelf too; but I muſt warn you of one thing, which is, that there are mines in the next world, as well as in this; and I give you my word that I'll make you work throughout all eternity." Upon hearing this the poor Indians threw themſelves at his feet, and beſeeched him, in the name of God, not to commit ſuch a raſh action. Had the two-thirds of theſe unhappy wretches deſtroyed themſelves, the orator would have been much embarraſſed to keep his word with the reſt.

On DEFAMATION.

THERE is no evil more common, and there is none that affects domeſtic happineſs more ſeverely, than defamation. In every walk of life we may obſerve the pernicious conſequences attendant on this infernal demon; but ſorry am I to ſay, that no where does it gain a more conſiderable influence, no where is it more cheriſhed and encouraged, than among thoſe who are favoured with eaſe and affluence, who have had the advantage of a liberal education, and therefore, one would be apt to imagine, would be above the meanneſs of this deſpicable vice.

Defamation is more particularly iniquitous, becauſe it is abſolutely inexcuſable, as being productive of no benefit to the perſon who gives it indulgence. Other vices yield ſome degree of pleaſure, however tranſient and inſignificant, in their motives and accompliſhments; but this proceeds either from a wanton principle of malevolence, or from a ſettled ſpirit of revenge, neither of which can poſſibly be productive of delightful ſenſations.

Oftentimes the circumſtances which attend a lapſe from virtue are ſuch, as greatly extenuate the fault of the erring child of mortality; but defamation affords no excuſe, ſince we can be under no neceſſity to wound the reputation of a fellow-creature. There are degrees in this crime. They who directly invent a ſlander againſt another are undoubtedly defamers of the firſt magnitude; but even thoſe perſons who report it again are abſolutely inexcuſable; for we ought not to mention any evil of our neighbour, and eſpecially if it comes upon uncertain evidence, or from one whoſe veracity we have any reaſon to doubt. Though, in fact, his conduct is infamous who invents a falſehood concerning the character of another, yet ours is little, if at all leſs ſo, if we report it again; becauſe we hereby approve of the evil, and contribute, as far as lies in our power, to its increaſe. If the author of the ſcandal did indeed give the firſt wound, we, by enlarging and irritating it, do what we can to make that wound mortal.

Suppoſing that we have any, even the ſlighteſt room to queſtion the truth of any evil report we hear, that is a ſufficient call upon us not to give it any circulation; for we are to conſider, that the miſchief we are about to do is irreparable, ſince we cannot poſſibly eraſe the impreſſions which our little narratives or inſinuations may have made upon the minds of the hearers. Now, if our reports ſhould happen to prove falſe, how odious muſt we appear to the wiſe and good, and indeed to ourſelves, when we ſee the party we have ſo cruelly injured, or hear his name mentioned?

But a conſiderable and common miſchief ariſing from defamation is, that the ſlandered perſon regains his reputation in a very ſlow degree, though it was blaſted in a moment. Many of thoſe, perhaps, who heard the ſcandal, have ſince been diſperſed abroad, and carried it with them to places where his vindication may never come. Beſide, it is a melancholy infirmity of human nature, that we are hardly brought to think well of one whom we have been uſed to conſider in a diſadvantageous light. There will long lurk within us an evil and

uncharitable ſpirit, called *ſuſpicion*, that will induce us to hold unfavourable notions of thoſe againſt whom defamation has once prejudiced us. And here I cannot help lamenting the too common practice of ſpreading abroad the real faults and failings of others, which, though rarely eſteemed ſo, is certainly a ſpecies of defamation; ſince, if even a perſon has injured us, to develope his errors, and to enlarge upon the vicious actions he has committed, prove that we are animated by a ſpirit of revenge rather than of true magnanimity. But to expoſe the faults of thoſe who have not made us the dupes of their art, or betray'd our confidence, is little leſs culpable than traducing the characters of the innocent: and I have often obſerved that this evil cuſtom prevents many, perhaps the generality, of the vicious from returning to the walk of virtue. When a frail daughter of mortality, whoſe unſuſpecting innocence has been made the ſad prey of ſome artful inſidious raviſher, deplores in ſilence the ſacrifice ſhe has made, and trembling ſeeks that virtue and peace ſhe had been drawn from by the arts of man, ſhe is too frequently kept back and driven from repentance by the reſt of her ſex, with whom a known deviation from virtue is conſidered as an unpardonable crime. She cannot appear in company without meeting the cutting taunt, the piercing ſneer, or worſe reproach, and that probably from perſons who, had they been in her ſituation, would more eaſily have yielded to vice, and more obſtinately have perſiſted in it.

But if to ſpeak evil of the vicious becomes us not, how ought we to guard againſt that more odious cuſtom of wounding the characters of the innocent?

To ſcatter the deadly arrows of defamation around, may be amuſing for the time, but it will certainly afford no pleaſing reflection, when the falſity of our reports is known; nor can we poſſibly behold the perſons we have ſo dreadfully injured in their neareſt and moſt valuable concerns, without ſhrinking back with conſcious guilt.

General PRINCIPLES *of* POLITICAL ECONOMY.

By COUNT DE BRUHL.

Of a Sole impoſt.

THE friends to the ſyſtem of a ſole impoſt form two claſſes: the firſt comprehends all the diſciples of Meſſ. Du Quenay et Du Mirabeau, whoſe doctrine reſts on the following principle, and which appears to them indiſputable; that is, that every impoſt, place it where you will, falls ultimately on the produce of the land. This opinion is not a new one, and is, in a great degree, ſupported by the ſuppoſed authority of the celebrated Locke. Let us ſee what this great philoſopher ſays on this ſubject. After having proved that the decay of commerce inevitably cauſes a deduction of the value of land, he proceeds thus: (Conſideration on lowering the Intereſt, &c. pa.

97, vol. II.) This, properly attended to, may serve to shew us, that in a country whose principal capital is in land, taxes, in whatever way they are laid, from whatever they are first drawn, fall, the greater portion, upon land."

If these economical gentlemen rested there, they had advanced nothing but what was strictly true; but they pretend that *all* taxes fall on the produce of the land, which appears to me an erroneous assertion, the examination of which shall be the object of the first part of this chapter.

The second class of advocates for a sole impost are those who maintain that every order of citizens necessarily contribute to the public expence, in proportion to their abilities; from whence they infer that a sole impost must be preferable to many, from the simplicity of its collection. We shall remark that this is very different from the former, who pretend that the proprietors of land support solely the the whole burthen of the expences of a state.

1st. I undertake to prove that all imposts do not fall on the produce of agriculture. To arrive at this proof, this is the course I shall take. I first lay it down for a principle, that the expence of all government, that is to say, the general and only cause of taxes, under whatever form, and by whatever power they are levied, is the amount of the wants, either real or artificial, of all subjects who devote themselves, or are looked upon as devoted, to the service of the state: I shall then ask permission to revert to my ordinary method, by offering an example applicable to the object of our enquiries.

Let us suppose, then, a nation, among whom the circulation of the precious metals made use of as money is entirely unknown; for, although in reality every exchange requires a measure of comparison, and nothing can acquire the quality of a universal measure of value, without being, at the same time, an equivalent, we cannot otherways use the case of a nation, deprived of money, to simplify the question we are about resolving.

We are now to provide for the wants of the state; that is, according to my principle, we have to pay those who serve that state what is an equivalent for their duty, for their subsistence, cloathing, habitations, and pleasure, and for that we must lay a tax. Now the most easy and natural way to tax such a people, without dispute, would be for every class of citizens to contribute a proportion of the surplus of that species of goods which constitutes their riches.

According to this regulation, the proprietors of the land would furnish, in the productions of the earth, such a quantity of provisions as they could spare; the artist and the learned would devote a part of their time to some occupations useful to the state; the handicraftman and the manufacturer would provide the servants of the state with such different works as were not indispensably necessary for their own support. In such a distribution of public burthens, no part of the inhabitants of a country would be oppressed, because the contribution of every person would consist only of the disposable part, or surplus, of his income.

It seems to me there requires no more to convince us that the different classes of labouring people constitute a capital entirely detach-

ed and independent of the land, and that the part of the tax which can be drawn from that capital ought not to be conſidered as an advance which ultimately falls on the revenue of the agricultural claſs, but as a real contribution on the part of thoſe claſſes, and is chargeable on them alone, and which, in any ſituation, cannot be ſupplied by a ſingle tax on the proprietors of the land, without augmenting the public expence as far as reſpects them.

To make this important truth the more apparent, let us ſee what would become of our nation if, inſtead of the reſources ſhe draws from the induſtry of her people, ſhe ſhould reſolve to ſubſtitute a ſole impoſt on proviſions. Let us ſuppoſe that the part of the public revenue which is ſupplied by the induſtrious claſs is one third: it is indifferent whether the claſs denominated by political authors the ſterile claſs, bears, in every ſtate, an equal proportion to the different orders of citizens; for the part they ſupply towards the tax muſt neceſſarily vary, according to the proportion between that claſs and the total amount of the inhabitants of a country, the degree of induſtry of its people, and the diſtribution of the public burthen. Now, therefore, on a ſuppoſition that this claſs ſupports one third of the whole duty, when the ſyſtem of the ſole impoſt on land ſhall be adopted, the contribution of the agricultural claſs muſt increaſe in proportion.

The natural conſequence of this operation in finance will be, that proprietors of the ſoil will be diſheartened. This diſcouragement will inſenſibly diminiſh the produce of the harveſt; this diminution will depopulate the country, and this depopulation will bring on a decreaſe of the revenue of the ſtate; all the arts, all the manufactures, will fall to decay, becauſe neither the expenditure of government, nor of individuals, can any longer afford employment to an equal number of workmen; and, by a chain of circumſtances, the ſole impoſt, which was deſigned to furniſh eaſy reſources to the ſtate, will complete its ruin, by ſapping the foundation of its grandeur and proſperity.

After having proved that the different produce of the labour of the working claſs forms one branch of the wants of the ſervants of a ſtate, that the proportion they contribute to the ſupport of government is entirely at their own coſt (if I dare thus expreſs myſelf) that conſequently they cannot be replaced by a ſole impoſt on land, without augmenting the charge thereon, we will paſs on to the examination of the different arguments that economical authors uſe in defence of their favourite ſyſtem.

The firſt and their principal argument is this—"We agree that the proprietors of the ſoil will be charged more immediately by the ſyſtem we recommend, but we contend that this augmentation will not be equivalent to the indirect charge which formerly ultimately fell on them by the increaſed contributions they paid to the working claſs, to reimburſe them the taxes they had before paid. Thus the ſole impoſt, although in appearance more burthenſome, will procure them a real relief, by the cheapneſs of all the productions of the labourers."

To expoſe the fallacy of this reaſoning, it will be ſufficient to obſerve, that theſe gentlemen conſider the labour of the workmen as an

invariable *quantity*, whether they contribute a portion of the tax, or are exempt from it: but I much wish to know how they are assured of that? We will suppose that the contribution of these classes amounts to one tenth of the produce of their labour; now, when they shall perceive that nine tenths are sufficient to afford them subsistence, with the same ease they enjoyed before the suppression of the tax they had formerly paid, is it not very probable, or rather certain, they would retrench one tenth of their application to labour? From whence will result, that the whole of their productions will experience an equal diminution, which, whatever writers may say, will inevitably deprive the proprietors of the advantage of the good-market which those writers have the complaisance to promise them.

2d. I do not recollect having met with the following argument in any of their works: nevertheless, as there is something very specious in it, I dare not pass it in silence. They may say that the sole impost, by taking from the proprietors a greater portion of their provision, will not, in the end, become more burthensome to them; for the price of all merchantable effects augmenting in proportion as the quantity diminishes, they will, by this means, receive a perfect compensation. The agricultural class will, indeed, have less provisions to exchange, after having satisfied the sole impost; but as the quantity which will remain to them will have acquired a price proportionably higher, it will answer to the same expences; that thus the situation of proprietors will not be worse; and that all the inconveniences which I have been describing, as the consequences of the establishment of a sole impost, exist only in my own imagination.

To refute this argument, I shall content myself with remarking that there is in this case no diminution in the quantity of provisions; for if the proprietors have a less quantity at their disposal in return, the servants of the state have a proportionable quantity to offer to the labourers: for the mass of provisions not being diminished by the sole impost, it is impossible that that portion which will remain in the hands of the proprietors can have acquired a higher price, and can afford them a compensation.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

The FLIRT. *A* MORAL TALE.

I am not inclined to descant, or enlarge, on the failings of my fellow-creatures. A friend to human nature, however it may be depraved, I contemplate, with satisfaction and awe, its sublime tendency. It either has truth for its object, or it has none, that can be called rational. But we find, that, from false education, erected on erroneous principles, and enforced by deceitful examples, our species have often erred from truth, and wandered through the paths of deception, 'till they have rushed into the vortex of vice. Let me adduce an example of what I have alluded to. It may excite some degree of attention, and ought to furnish admonition to many a pa-

rental heart. Be it not inferred on this occasion, that I give a loose to fancy. In the course of my narrative, morality shall be my guide, and utility my object.

Araminta in her childhood was under the guidance of her mother. Let not therefore her demerits be ascribed to her nurse, her guardian, her tutoress, or her preceptor. They all discharged their duties. Her mother alone was culpable. At an early age, she was deprived of her father; and even at this day she laments the loss. How often have I wept at her misfortune, principally, because she was told, that she was an heiress, and was instructed to despise the vulgar. I will not attempt a definition of what may be justly styled vulgar. It is sufficient to say, that she was taught to look down on humility with scorn, and to exalt her views to grandeur.

The property, equally shared with her mother, was inconsiderable in their eyes. It was adequate to their ease, but was insufficient to the demands of luxury. Friends, however, were not wanting; and Araminta, under the inspection of her mother, received the gloss of education, without the solidity of information. Genius was not wanting; but genius was improperly directed. She was conducted to the higher scenes of life, and occasionally panted for enjoyments, of which, except through the medium of example, she had not a true conception. Behold her in her eighteenth year, adorned with all the graces of youth and beauty. See her smile in the circle of friendship; hear her laugh at the orgies of dissipation. Araminta was received with cordiality in every polite company. Age paid due homage to her natural and acquired graces; whilst with the accents of sentiment she added pleasure to each heart endued with susceptibility.

But alas! she now began to perceive her consequence through the medium of vanity; and, aiming at ostentation, lost sight of sensibility. Merely to please was no longer her desire. She was dazzled by splendor, and panted for flattery. Toasted as a beauty and a wit, she imagined that wit and beauty were sufficient to constitute happiness; and exulting in the bloom of spring, had no apprehension of the approach of autumn. She was seriously addressed by Favonius; and marriage was regularly proposed to her mother. But the elder lady looked forward to wealth, and its consequences, whilst Araminta was not insensible to personal graces. Thus the gentleman was rejected by the mother, because he could not support an equipage; and by the daughter, because his deportment was not altogether elegant.——Was Araminta deserving of real censure in this instance? Mercutius addressed her. His appearance was elegant. She barely endured his visits; and even in his presence coquetted with Flavius, for whom she entertained no esteem. The lover consequently receded from his addresses; and, deserted by Flavius, Araminta might now acknowledge, that, had she listened to the sighs of Mercutius she might probably have been happy. Possessed of a decent property, he lately married, and displays to an admiring neighbourhood, all the conjugal and parental virtues.

Her mother, at this period, deserted the scene of vanity, where she constituted her daughter her inheritrix. Still a flirt, she imagin-

ed, that her charms were irresistible. The debt to decency performed, she found herself, as administratrix, about a hundred pounds in debt, without a reasonable hope of discharging the various demands. No polished lovers could now be found; and it would have been fruitless to lavish her smiles upon traders, who were respectively made acquainted with her circumstances, as they presented their bills. She now deplores, with true contrition, her comfortless situation; and though she has not erred from the paths of (what is commonly called) female virtue, yet having from fallacious principles, neglected discretion, however she may claim pity as a woman, she must be censured as a FLIRT.

I resume the idea, which I wished to inculcate in the course of this history, and assert, that a bad education, and especially *that*, which originates in pride, must degrade the human mind, and too often bring misery in its train. Let, therefore, every parent, endued with common understanding, reflect on the education of his, or her, children; and, since it must be acknowledged, that ridicule is due to the fop, it ought to be remembered, that sneers, censure, and too often, indelible disgrace are the portion of the FLIRT. W. T.

Philadelphia, 8th. June 1791.

Account of a SINGULAR MARK *of* GRATITUDE *in a* GENTOO.

[*From Macdonald's Travels.*]

OUR author obtained a relation of the following extraordinary circumstance during his residence in India.

A great many of the gentlemen Gentoos came from the city of Mar, and amongst them one very rich, and a great and good man. He had been married some years, and had no children. I was told prayers had been put up by the bramins in pagodas; at last he had an only son. In return, he publickly goes through a torment in honour of his creator, and the pure and undefiled Gentoo religion; and his name is handed down to posterity, amongst the worthy as a saint, and his family respected.

When the operation was to begin, he was seated on a table, under one of the ends of a cross pole: an incision is made in each side, under his ribs, to let in each hole a smooth iron hook, like those that let down a butt of beer into a cellar in London, with a string from the rope that draws him up round the breast, to keep him from pitching forward, and to keep him in the same position. With the irons in his side, he is drawn up in a moment with a pulley. When he is up, there is one over him, who crosses a rope to hold him there. His hands and feet are tied, that he cannot stir. But take notice, there are weights on the other end of the cross-pole, to balance the person who is drawn up, and he who fixes him. So while the musick is playing, some are crying, others praying for him to get through his misery. At the other end of the pole a rope is fixed, which a man takes

hold of, and runs him round three times. Whenever he came to the ſame place, they gave him a cheer; ſo he had three cheers, when he had gone round three times. He was taken down in a moment, a cordial given him, his wounds were dreſſed, and he was carried home in triumph, with beating of drums, and muſic playing. Thoſe who remain behind, dance in different companies.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SIR,

THE following receipt has been long uſed by ſome very ſkilful perſons in this country. It ſeems well worthy of being laid before the publick, as we pay annually conſiderable ſums to Britain and Holland, for blue ſtriped linens, which, with the aid of this direction, we may perhaps make, ourſelves. I cannot adopt a better channel than your publication, to which I am

A FRIEND.

RECEIPT *to dye a* NEVER-FADING BLUE.

TAKE one pound of log-wood, and boil it four hours in an iron pot, in as much water, as, when boiled, will wet three pounds of *flaxen* yarn: then put into it two ounces of blue vitriol, made fine, and let it remain two minutes; then put in three pounds of *flaxen* yarn, ſtirring it up conſtantly for two minutes.—Take it out, and lay it in cold water, in which let it remain two minutes: Then dry it; which done put it in ſtrong ſoap-ſuds, and boil it well.—*Woollen* yarn may be alſo dyed in this way, but it will not bear boiling.

*** *Would it not be well that the above ſhould be carefully tried on* cotton *yarn, and* ſilk *yarn?——The colour, we are informed, is very beautiful.*

ART *of purifying* TALLOW *to make* CANDLES.

TAKE 5-8ths of tallow 5-8ths of mutton ſuet, melt them in a copper caldron, with half a pound of hot water to each pound of greaſe. As ſoon as they are melted, mix eight ounces of brandy, one of ſalt of tartar, one of cream of tartar, one of ſal ammoniac, and two of pure and dry pot-aſh; throw the mixture in the caldron, and make the ingredients boil a quarter of an hour: then let the whole cool. The next day, the tallow will be found on the ſurface of the water in a pure cake. Take it out, and expoſe it to the action of the air, on canvaſs for ſome days; it will become white, and almoſt as hard as wax. The dew is very favourable to its bleaching. Make your wicks of fine and even cotton, give them a coat of melted wax; then caſt your mould-candles. They will have much the appearance of wax, and one of ſix to the pound, will burn fourteen hours, and never run.

Account *of the late* Mr. JOHN LEDYARD.

THIS enterprising traveller was a native of Connecticut. Being deprived of his father, by death, while he was yet a child, the care of his education devolved on his grandfather, John Ledyard esq. who gave him a Latin and English school-education at Hartford. When he was about eighteen years old, his grandfather died, and left him to follow the bent of his inclination. Possessed of a heart breathing good will to mankind, he now turned his attention to the study of divinity. With this view he went to Dartmouth college, where he became acquainted with the manners of the Indians; and studied, with great success, the means of recommending himself to their friendship. This was afterwards of infinite service to him, as well in his voyage with capt. Cook, as in his travels among savage nations.

Want of money obliged him to quit the college, without completing the usual course of academical education. And now his enterprising genius began to exert itself. Not having money to defray the expences of a journey to Hartford, by land, he built a canoe, 50 feet in length and three in breadth; he also erected a booth of willows over her stern, to shelter him from the inclemency of the weather, and procured some dried venison for sustenance in his intended voyage. Thus furnished, he embarked for Hartford. He had 140 miles to sail in his canoe, in a rapid river with which he was totally unacquainted; but his determined perseverance surmounted every obstacle, and he arrived safe at the place of his destination, to the astonishment of all who were acquainted with the hazards to which he had been exposed.

Yielding to the impulse of his enterprising disposition, he soon after went, as a common sailor, from New-York to London, where he entered corporal of marines with capt. Cook, then bound on a voyage of discovery to the N. W. coast of America. He was a favourite with capt. Cook, and was present at his tragical death.

His friends, not having heard any thing respecting him for ten years, had given him up for dead, when they were surprized by a visit from him, in 1781. At this time he published an account of Cook's voyage. He also offered his services to several merchants, to conduct a trading voyage to the north-west coast of America; but not meeting with encouragement, he again embarked for England, in 1782. His desire to explore unknown countries was too great to suffer him to remain long inactive. He felt a strong anxiety to penetrate the American continent from the north-western coast, where he had been with captain Cook, to the eastern coast with which he was already acquainted. Having determined to traverse this vast continent, from the Pacific to the Atlantic ocean, he resolved to embark in a vessel which was prepared to sail on a voyage of commercial adventure to Nootka Sound; and, accordingly, expended in seastores, the greater part of the money with which his chief patron and benefactor, Sir Joseph Banks, had liberally supplied him. But the scheme being frustrated by the rapacity of a custom-house officer, who

lead seized and detained the vessel, for reasons which, on legal inquiry, proved to be frivolous, he determined to travel over land to Kamschatka, from whence the passage to the western coast of America is extremely short. With not more than ten guineas in his purse, which was all that he had left, he crossed the British channel to Ostend, and proceeded thence to the capital of Sweden; from whence, as it was winter, he attempted to traverse the Gulph of Bothnia on the ice, in order to reach Kamschatka by the shortest way; but finding, when he came to the middle of the sea, that the water was not frozen, he returned to Stockholm, and taking his course northward, walked into the Arctic circle, and, passing round the head of the Gulph, descended on its eastern side to Peterlburgh.

There he was soon noticed as an extraordinary man. Without stockings or shoes, and too much poverty to provide himself with either, he received and accepted an invitation to dine with the Portuguese ambassador. To this invitation it was probably owing that he was able to obtain the sum of twenty guineas, for a bill on Sir Joseph Banks, which he confessed he had no authority to draw, but which, in consideration of the business that he had undertaken, and of the progress that he made, Sir Joseph, he believed, would not be unwilling to pay. To the ambassador's interest it might also be owing that he obtained permission to accompany a detachment of stores, which the Empress had ordered to be sent to Yakutz, for the use of Mr. Billings, an Englishman, at that time in her service.

Thus accommodated, he travelled eastward through Siberia 6000 miles to Yakutz, where he was kindly received by Mr. Billings, whom he remembered on board capt. Cook's ship, in the situation of astronomer's servant, but to whom the Empress had now entrusted the scheme of northern discovery.

From Yakutz he proceeded to Oczackow, on the coast of the Kamschatka sea; from whence he meant to have passed over to that peninsula, and to have embarked on the eastern side in one of the Russian vessels, that trade to the western shores of America; but finding that the navigation was completely obstructed by the ice, he returned again to Yakutz, in order to wait the conclusion of the winter.

Such was his situation, when, in consequence of suspicions not hitherto explained, or resentments for which no reason is assigned, he was seized in the Empress's name, by two Russian soldiers, who placed him in a sledge, and conveying him, in the depth of winter, through the deserts of the northern Tartary, left him at last on the frontiers of the Polish dominions. As they parted, they told him that if he returned to Russia he would certainly be hanged. Misery and hardship were now become familiar to him. Though it is scarcely possible to conceive a human being capable of sustaining the accumulated misfortunes he experienced on this occasion, yet he bravely struggled with, and finally surmounted them all.

In the midst of poverty, covered with rags, invested with the usual accompanyment of such cloathing, worn with continual hardship, exhausted by disease, without friends, without credit, unknown, and full of misery, he found his way to Koningsburg. There, in the hour of his utmost distress, he resolved once more to have recourse to his

old benefactor; and he luckily found a perſon who was willing to take his draft for five guineas on the Preſident of the Royal Society.

With this aſſiſtance he arrived in England, and immediately waited on Sir Joſeph Banks, who told him, knowing his temper, that he believed he could recommend him to an adventure almoſt as perilous as the one from which he had returned; and then communicated to him the wiſhes of the aſſociation for diſcovering the inland countries of Africa.

Mr. Ledyard replied, that he had always determined to traverſe the continent of Africa, as ſoon as he had explored the interior parts of North America. Sir Joſeph gave him a letter of introduction, with which he immediately waited on Mr. Beaufoy, the gentleman who had the direction of the intended journey, and to whom we are principally indebted for theſe memoirs. "Before I had learnt from the note," ſays Mr. Beaufoy, "the name and buſineſs of my viſitor, I was ſtruck with the manlineſs of his perſon, the breadth of his cheſt, the openneſs of his countenance, and the inquietude of his eye. I opened the map of Africa before him, and tracing a line from Cairo to Sennar, and from thence weſtward, in the latitude and ſuppoſed direction of the Niger, I told him that was the rout by which I was anxious that Africa might, if poſſible, be explored. He ſaid he ſhould think himſelf ſingularly fortunate to be entruſted with the adventure. I aſked him when he would ſet out?—To-morrow morning, was his anſwer."

On this grand adventure Mr. Ledyard left London on June 30th, 1788, and reached Cairo, in Egypt, on the 19th of Auguſt, from whence he tranſmitted ſuch accounts to his employers, as plainly ſhewed he was a traveller of obſervation and reflection, endowed with a mind for diſcovery, and formed for atchievments of hardihood and peril. He had promiſed his next communication from Sennar, about 600 miles ſouth of Cairo; but death put an end to the hopes that were entertained of his projected journey.

We ſhall conclude this ſhort ſketch, with Mr. Ledyard's character of the female ſex: "I have always remarked that women, in all countries, are civil, obliging, tender, and humane; that they are ever inclined to be gay and cheerful, timorous and modeſt; and that they do not heſitate, like men, to perform a generous action. Not haughty, arrogant, nor ſupercilious, they are full of courteſy, and fond of ſociety; more liable in general to err than man, but generally more virtuous, and performing more good actions than he. To a woman, either civilized or ſavage, I never addreſſed myſelf in the language of decorum and friendſhip, without receiving a decent and friendly anſwer—with men it has been otherwiſe.

"In wandering over the barren plains of inhoſpitable Denmark, through honeſt Sweden, and frozen Lapland, rude and churliſh Finland, unprincipled Ruſſia, and the wide ſpreading regions of the wandering Tartar,—if hungry, dry, cold, wet, or ſick, the women have ever been friendly to me, and uniformly ſo; and to add to this virtue (ſo worthy of the appellation of benevolence) theſe actions have been performed in ſo free and ſo kind a manner, that if I was dry, I drank the ſweeteſt draught—and if hungry, I eat the coarſeſt morſel with a double reliſh."

Instances *of* Living Animals *found enclosed in* Solid Bodies.

THE more a fact is singular, and varies from the ordinary laws of nature, the more it merits the attention of the philosopher and amateur. When once sufficiently confirmed, however contrary it may be to prevailing opinions, it is entitled to a place in the rank of knowledge. The most obstinate scepticism cannot destroy its certainty, and can only afford a proof of the presumption and pride which lead us to deny whatever we are incompetent to explain. The following phenomena are of this kind. They are such as have occurred to us in the course of our reading; and we have collected them, from the hope that some one, whose studies may have been directed to such objects, will enlarge the list. The more they are multiplied, the greater light will probably be thrown upon them; and it will perhaps one day be a matter of surprise, that we have been so long ignorant of their cause.

In 1683, Mr. Blondel reported to the Academy, that at Toulon, oysters, good to eat, were frequently found enclosed in pieces of stone.

In 1685, M. de Cassini mentions a similar fact, from the testimony of M. Duraffe, Ambassador at the court of Constantinople, who assured him, that stones were frequently found there, in which were enclosed little animals called *dactyles*.

The following instances are not less curious, and are more recent.

Some workmen in a quarry at Bourfire, in Gotha, having detached a large piece of stone from the mass, found, on breaking it, a live toad. They were desirous of separating the part that bore the shape of the animal, but it crumbled into sand. The toad was of a dark grey, its back a little speckled. The colour of its belly was brighter. Its eyes, small and circular, emitted fire from beneath a tender membrane which covered them. They were of the colour of pale gold. When touched on the head with a stick, it closed its eyes, as if asleep, and gradually opened them again when the stick was taken away. It was incapable of any other motion.—The aperture of the mouth was closed by means of a yellowish membrane. Upon pressing it on the back, it discharged some clear water, and died. Under the membrane which covered the mouth, were found, both in the upper and lower jaw, two sharp teeth, which were stained with a little blood. How long it had been enclosed in this stone, is a question that cannot be solved.

Mr. le Prince, a celebrated sculptor, asserts, in like manner, that he saw in 1756, in the house of M. de la Riviere, at Ecretteville, a living toad in the center of a hard stone, with which it was as it were incrusted; and facts of this kind are less rare than is imagined.

In 1764, some workmen in a quarry in Lorrain, informed Mr. Grignon, that they had found a toad in a mass of stone, forty-five feet below the surface of the earth. This celebrated naturalist went immediately to the spot, but could not perceive, as he assures us in his "*Treatise on the Fabrication of Iron*," any vestige of the prison of

this animal. A small cavity was visible in the stone, but it bore no impression of the body of the toad. The toad that was shewn him was of a middling size, of a grey colour, and seemed to be in its natural state. The workmen informed Mr. Grignon, that this was the sixth that had been found in these mines within the space of thirty years. Mr. Grignon considered the circumstance as worthy a more particular attention, and he promised therefore a reward to any person who should find him another instance of a toad, so enclosed in a stone that it had no means of getting out.

In 1770, a toad was brought to him, enclosed in two hollow shells of stone, in which it was said to have been found; but on examining it nicely, Mr. Grignon perceived that the cavity bore the impression of a shell-fish, and of consequence, he concluded it to be apocryphal. In 1771, however, another instance occurred, and was the subject of a curious memoir, read by Mr. Guettard to the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris. It was thus related by that famous naturalist:

In pulling down a wall, which was known to have existed upwards of a hundred years, a toad was found, without the smallest aperture being discoverable by which it could have entered. Upon inspecting the animal, it was apparent that it had been dead but a very little time; and in this state it was presented to the Academy, which induced M. Guettard to make repeated enquiries into this subject, the particulars of which will be read with pleasure, in the excellent memoir we have just cited.

These phenomena remind us of others of a similar nature, and equally certain. In the trunk of an elm, about the size of a man's body, three or four feet above the root, and precisely in the center, was found, in 1719, a live toad, of a moderate size, thin, and which occupied but a very small space. As soon as the wood was cut, it came out, and skipped away very alertly. No tree could be more sound. No place could be discovered through which it was possible for the animal to have penetrated; which led the recorder of the fact to suppose, that the spawn, from which it originated, must, by some unaccountable accident, have been in the tree from the very first moment of its vegetation. The toad had lived in the tree without air, and what is still more surprising, had subsisted on the substance of the wood, and had grown, in proportion as the tree had grown. This fact was attested by Mr. Hebert, ancient professor of philosophy at Caen.

In 1731, Mr. Seigne wrote to the Academy of Sciences at Paris, an account of a phenomenon exactly similar to the preceding one, except that the tree was larger, and was an oak instead of an elm, which makes the instance more surprising.—From the size of the oak, Mr. Seigne judged that the toad must have existed in it, without air or any external nourishment, for the space of eighty or a hundred years.

We shall cite a third instance, related in a letter, of the 5th of February 1780, written from the neighbourhood of Saint Mexent, of which the following is a copy.

"A few days ago I ordered an oak-tree of a tolerable size to be cut down, and converted into a beam that was wanted for a building which I was then constructing. Having separated the head from the

trunk, three men were employed in squaring it to the proper size. About four inches were to be cut away on each side. I was present during the transaction. Conceive what was my astonishment, when I saw them throw aside their tools, start back from the tree, and fix their eyes on the same point, with a kind of amazement and terror! I instantly approached, and looked at the part of the tree which had fixed their attention. My surprise equalled theirs, on seeing a toad, about the size of a large pullet's egg, incrusted in a manner in the tree, at the distance of four inches from the diameter, and fifteen from the root. It was cut and mangled by the axe, but it still moved. I drew it with difficulty from its abode, or rather prison, which it filled so completely, that it seemed to have been compressed. I placed it on the grass: it appeared old, thin, languishing, and decrepid. We afterwards examined the tree with the nicest care, to discover how it had glided in; but the tree was perfectly whole and sound."

These facts, but particularly the memoir of M. Guettard, induced M. Herissan to make experiments calculated to ascertain their certainty.

February 21, 1771, he enclosed three live toads in so many cases of plaster, and shut them up in a deal box, which he also covered with a thick plaster. On the 8th of April, 1774, having taken away the plaster, he opened the box, and found the cases whole, and two of the toads alive.—The one that died was larger than the others, and had been more compressed in its case. A careful examination of this experiment convinced those who had witnessed it, that the animals were so enclosed that they could have no possible communication with the external air, and that they must have existed during this lapse of time without the smallest nourishment.

The Academy prevailed on Mr. Herissan to repeat the experiment. He inclosed again the two surviving toads, and placed the box in the hands of the secretary, that the society might open it whenever they should think proper. But this celebrated naturalist was too strongly interested in the subject, to be satisfied with a single experiment; he made therefore the two following:

1. He placed, 15 April in the same year, two live toads in a bason of plaster, which he covered with a glass case, that he might observe them frequently. On the ninth of the following month, he presented this apparatus to the Academy. One of the toads was still living; the other had died the preceding night.

2. The same day, 15 April, he enclosed another toad in a glass bottle, which he buried in sand, that it might have no communication with the external air. This animal, which he presented to the Academy at the same time, was perfectly well, and even croaked whenever the bottle was shaken in which he was confined. It is to be lamented that the death of Mr. Herissan put a stop to these experiments.

We beg leave to observe on this subject, that the power which these animals appear to possess of supporting abstinence for so long a time, may result from a very slow digestion, and perhaps from the singular nourishment which they derive from themselves. M. Grignon observes, that this animal sheds its skin several times in the course of

a year, and that it always ſwallows it. He has known, he ſays, a large toad ſhed its ſkin ſix times in one winter. In ſhort, thoſe which, from the facts we have related, may be ſuppoſed to have exiſted for many centuries without nouriſhment, have been in a total inaction, in a ſuſpenſion of life, in a temperature that has admitted of no diſſolution; ſo that it was not neceſſary to repair any loſs, the humidity of the ſurrounding matter preſerving that of the animal, who wanted only the component parts not to be dried up, to preſerve it from deſtruction.

But toads are not the only animals which have the privilege of living for a conſiderable period, without nouriſhment and communication with the external air. The inſtances of the oyſters and dactyles mentioned in the beginning of this article, may be advanced in proof of it. But there are other examples.

Two living worms were found in Spain, in the middle of a block of marble, which a ſculptor was carving into a lion of the natural colour, for the royal family. Theſe worms occupied two ſmall cavities, to which there was no inlet that could poſſibly admit the air. They ſubſiſted probably on the ſubſtance of the marble, as they were of the ſame colour. This fact is verified by Captain Ulloa, a famous Spaniard, who accompanied the French Academicians in their voyage to Peru, to aſcertain the figure of the earth. He aſſerts that he ſaw theſe two worms.

A beetle, of the ſpecies called capricorn, was found in a piece of wood in the hold of a ſhip at Plymouth. The wood had no external mark of any aperture.

We read in the *Affiches de Province*, 17 June 1772, that an adder was found alive in the center of a block of marble, thirty feet in diameter. It was folded nine times round in a ſpiral line; it was incapable of ſupporting the air, and died a few minutes after. Upon examining the ſtone, not the ſmalleſt trace was to be found by which it could have glided in, or received air.

Miſſon, in his travels through Italy, mentions a craw-fiſh that was found alive in the middle of a marble, in the environs of Tivoli.

M. Peyſſonel, king's phyſician at Guadaloupe, having ordered a pit to be dug in the back part of his houſe, live frogs were found by the workmen, in beds of petrifaction. M. Peyſſonel, ſuſpecting ſome deceit, deſcended into the pit, dug the bed of rock and petrifactions, and drew out himſelf, green frogs, which were alive, and perfectly ſimilar to what we ſee every day.

UTILITY *of the* CARROT-POULTICE, *when applied to* ULCERATED CANCERS.

[*By Dr. Cowan*]

AN effectual cure for a cancer, is ſtill among the deſiderata of phyſic—Mercury, antimony, and various other ſubſtitutes have been long tried, and often found to fail; hemlock is a more powerful

remedy, but though it has been ſucceſsfully adminiſtered in cutaneous diſorders, though it has reſolved ſchirrouſes, and as it were prepared the body for any topical remedy—yet it has but rarely cured an ulcerated cancer. The topical remedy which I now offer to the public, is ſimple, harmleſs, and eaſily to be procured, not only by the rich, but by the poor. Take carrots freſh gathered, reduce them to a coarſe powder with a baker's raſp, preſs out the juice, warm the pulp in an earthen pipkin, and apply it thick as a poultice; if there be holes or hollows of any kind, they muſt be filled, ſo that the poultice may touch everypart of the ulcer. The whole muſt be covered with a napkin well dried and warm; the dreſſing muſt be renewed twice every twenty-four hours—taking away the ſtale poultice; and at the ſame time waſhing and cleaning the ulcers with ſome lint, faſtened to the end of a probe or ſome other inſtrument, dipped in a warm decoction of hemlock. This application will take away the pain and loathſome ſmell, attendant in cancerous ulcers.

ANECDOTES.

I. *Of* LEWIS XIV.

THIS monarch was once approached by a woman of low condition, who complained that ſome of his ſoldiers had entered her field in the night, and taken away her cattle, in which her whole wealth conſiſted. "You muſt then," ſaid the king, "have been in a very deep ſleep, that you did not hear the robbers!"—"Yes, Sire," replied ſhe, "I ſlept ſoundly; but it was in confidence that your majeſty watched for your people's ſafety." The king, though abſolute and ambitious, had an elevated mind: he approved of her anſwer, bold as it was, and ordered her to receive ample ſatisfaction for the loſs ſhe had ſuſtained.

II. *Of the late* KING *of* PRUSSIA.

A LADY of high faſhion, complimenting the king, in ſuch high terms that his Pruſſian majeſty was rather diſguſted at it than pleaſed; and ſaying, amongſt other things, that he was covered with glory, was the peace-maker of Europe, and in ſhort, the greateſt monarch and man on earth—"Madam," replied the king, "You are as handſome as an angel; witty, elegant, and agreeable; in ſhort, you poſſeſs all the admirable qualities of your ſex, but—you paint!"

III. *Of* GEORGE I.

GEORGE I. being at a maſked ball, fell into converſation with a lady, whom he did not know through her diſguiſe. She propoſed a refreſhment at the ſide-board; the king conſented; and ſome wine being poured out, "To the health of the pretender!" ſaid the lady: "With all my heart!" anſwered that truly generous monarch; "I drink ſincerely to the health of unfortunate princes!"

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

IMPARTIAL REVIEW

OF LATE

American Publications.

INAUGURAL DISSERTATIONS.

(Concluded from page 336.)

III. *On* CHOLERA MORBUS, *by* DAVID HOSACK, A. B. *of New-York.*

MR. HOSACK propoſes to confine himſelf to the conſideration of that ſpecies of cholera, which generally comes on without any evident cauſe, and is uſually denominated the true or ſpontaneous cholera. This, he informs us, he means "to trace to its cauſes; and, if poſſible, thereby to refute the theory which has been, and is ſtill ſo generally received, and which has given riſe to a very vague and uncertain mode of treatment."

He accordingly proceeds to offer objections to the commonly received opinion, that heat is the exciting cauſe of cholera; and attempts to eſtabliſh a different theory of this diſeaſe. Our limits will not permit us to go into a lengthy examination of this performance; we ſhall merely offer a few obſervations on particular paſſages, chiefly thoſe in which the author endeavours to ſupport his own theory.

Mr. Hoſack ſays that "among the diſeaſes of children, cholera, in point of fatality, ſtands at the head of the liſt." How this fact agrees with the obſervation of Dr. Cullen, that "in genuine cholera, the cure has long been eſtabliſhed by experience," he leaves the reader to determine.—Surely our candidate cannot ſuppoſe Dr. Cullen meant that the diſeaſe could always be cured. That cholera is frequently fatal, in this part of the world, will not be diſputed; but that it is not ſo in Great Britain, we are diſpoſed to believe, upon the reſpectable teſtimony of Doctors Cullen and Sydenham, rather than give credit to incorrect bills of mortality, publiſhed often by ignorant perſons, who are by no means qualified for ſuch a buſineſs.

Mr. Hoſack willingly admits, as a cauſe of failure in ſome inſtances, the phyſician's not being called upon until the patient has been very much exhauſted by the diſeaſe. But he ſeems more diſpoſed to attribute this failure to what he terms "the practice with the greater part of phyſicians," and which, had it been followed by Dr. Cullen and Dr. Sydenham, would not, very probably, have enabled them to give ſo favourable an account of the iſſue of cholera. This, Mr. Hoſack tells us, conſiſts "in evacuating the offending matter, which is already pouring out *quaquaverſum*, by preſcribing emetics and purga-

tives"—this is "the first indication of cure, at whatever period of the disease the physician is first called."

Where our candidate has found this practice generally recommended, or where he has seen it carried into effect, we know not; but we are confident in asserting, that the use of either emetics or purgatives is hardly ever admitted, by the best practicalwriters, of this or former times, or by the most eminent practitioners of the present day.—Hoffman, even when cholera is excited by a surfeit of fermentable aliment, directs us to promote the evacuations, when not sufficiently copious, by means of demulcent liquors, used as drinks, and injected at the anus, and *not* by means of direct emetics or purgatives.—Sydenham expressly tells us, that to use purgatives would be like attempting to extinguish burning oil by throwing water on it; as the most lenient cathartic would increase the disease. We deem it superfluous to quote other authors in support of our assertion, the truth of which will readily be acknowledged, by such of our readers as have attended either to the study or the practice of medicine; these will agree with us, that our author has certainly fallen into an egregious mistake.

Mr Hosack's theory of cholera is briefly this, that heat, by relaxing the body, acts as a predisposing cause; and that *acridity** in the stomach, whether generated by the heat of the climate, want of exercise, or, (what he considers as most frequent) by the excessive use of acids and acescent fruits, is the immediate or exciting cause of cholera.

Thus it appears, that the only essential difference between the commonly received opinion on this subject and Mr. Hosack's theory is, his believing that acids and acescents excite that increased flow of bile which immediately brings on the disease, instead of admitting this to be a consequence of the operation of heat upon the system.

We shall not take up the time of the reader, with particular animadversions on the facts mentioned by Mr. Hosack, in support of his theory, and which, might, perhaps, admit of an explanation, equally favourable to the commonly received opinion. Suffice it to observe, generally, that the production of the increased quantity of bile cannot, in our opinion, be satisfactorily explained, merely from the use of acids and acescents; we are rather disposed to attribute it to heat, which occasions the bile to pass off in an increased quantity, and sometimes in an acrimonious state, agreeably to the opinion of many eminent physicians, who have been particularly attentive to this subject.

We are very much confirmed in our belief of this doctrine, by the invariable connection of *true cholera* with a very warm state of the air. For although the appearance of this disease is most general in the middle, or towards the latter end of summer; yet, whenever the weather has become very warm, even so early in the season as May, or the beginning of June, as it sometimes has in this city, we have found cholera to be uniformly the consequence. In like manner, a continuance of unusually warm weather, late in the season, always occasions a

* A new-fangled word indeed.

continuance of the diſeaſe; but if cool weather occurs early in the ſeaſon, cholera invariably diſappears.*

Another deciſive fact, in favour of our opinion, is, that thoſe who make little uſe of acids or aceſcents are quite as liable to cholera as thoſe who uſe them very freely. See Sydenham, Sauvages, Hoffman, &c. de cholera.

We can by no means agree with Mr. Hoſack, in his aſſertion, that almoſt every author, who has written on this ſubject, recommends as many remedies as the diſeaſe has ſymptoms, and that thoſe remedies are commonly inconſiſtent with each other. With reſpect to Dr. Sydenham, whom Mr. Hoſack particularly mentions, we think his method of cure is much leſs complicated; more rational, in ſome reſpects, than that recommended in the *theſis*; and, if we may give credit to the Dr. himſelf, it was almoſt uniformly ſucceſsful.

Dr. Sydenham, like moſt of the eminent medical writers, had always the two following objects in view, in attempting the cure of cholera. 1ſt. To expel the offending humours; and, 2. To remove the violent ſpaſms, and the debility, which occur in this diſeaſe. To accompliſh the former, he recommends the plentiful uſe of chicken water; and for the latter, laudanum and tonics.

Our author's firſt indication is, to neutralize the acid preſent in the ſtomach; this is to be accompliſhed by means of the alkalies; and, in order to *prevent the ſecretion of bile*, laudanum is to be adminiſtered. —We cannot help thinking that the *evacuation* of the offending matter is to be preferred to *neutralizing* it; and, from the experience of many eminent phyſicians, we are induced to believe, that this mode of treatment, together with the uſe of laudanum afterwards, not for the purpoſe of preventing a ſecretion of bile, but to obviate ſpaſm, will be found at leaſt as efficacious as the method of cure adviſed by our author.

Mr. Hoſack's ſecond indication, which is to be attended to after "the moſt violent ſymptoms of the diſeaſe have been mitigated," is, to reſtore the tone of the ſtomach. To effect this, he, with great propriety, recommends tonic medicines, nouriſhing and ſtimulating diet, exerciſe and cool air; together with theſe, however, we would adviſe our author, when in practice, to uſe laudanum, in quantities proportioned to the degree of morbid evacuation, and the ſpaſmodic affections which occur, till both are completely ſubdued.

Having paſſed theſe ſtrictures on Mr. Hoſack's Diſſertation, it is but juſtice to add, that although we do not agree with him in the principles he endeavours to eſtabliſh, we think his performance, upon the whole, an ingenious one. It abounds with inaccuracies, but theſe appear to be chiefly typographical.

* Hence we infer, that *warm weather alone* is ſufficient to produce cholera; for no great uſe of fruits can take place in the latter end of May. We would obſerve farther, that when the weather grows moderately cool, in the fall, fruit is ſtill in abundance, and is pretty liberally uſed; but no cholera appears, unleſs indeed it be from eating an immoderate quantity at once; and it is well known that a too plentiful meal of animal food has frequently produced the ſame effect.—Our author appears to have confounded this ſpecies of the diſeaſe with what is ſtrictly termed *true* cholera.

An ENQUIRY *into the* EFFECTS *of* SPIRITUOUS LIQUORS *upon the* HUMAN BODY, *and their Influence upon the* HAPPINESS *of* SOCIETY. *By* BENJAMIN RUSH, M. D. PROFESSOR *of the Theory and Practice of* MEDICINE *in the College of Philadelphia. The Third Edition, with Additions.* [Philadelphia. Price six pence.]

PUBLICATIONS that have for their object the diminution of human misery are entitled to our most serious attention; and, when well calculated to accomplish this benevolent end, merit our warmest approbation. In this small performance, we are presented with such a group of the pernicious effects of spirituous liquors, as cannot fail to be highly alarming to every votary of intemperance, who shall give it an attentive perusal.

The abominable vice of drunkenness has in vain been assailed from the pulpit: perhaps the apprehension of misery in *this life* may be more effectual. The following destructive effects of spirits are enumerated by Dr. Rush:

1. A *sickness at the stomach*, and *vomiting* in the morning. This disorder is generally accompanied with a want of appetite for breakfast. It is known by tremors in the hands, insomuch that persons who labour under it, are hardly able to lift a teacup to their heads, till they have taken a dose of some cordial liquor. In this disorder, a peculiar paleness, with small red streaks, appears in the cheeks. The flesh of the face, at the same time, has a peculiar fulness and flabbiness, which are very different from sound and healthy fat.

2. An *universal dropsy*. This disorder begins first in the lower limbs, and gradually extends itself throughout the whole body.

3. *Obstruction of the liver*. This disorder produces other diseases, such as an inflammation, which sometimes proves suddenly fatal—the jaundice—and a dropsy in the belly.

4. *Pains in the limbs*, accompanied with a sense of burning in the palms of the hands and soles of the feet. This disease has been sometimes called the Jamaica Rheumatism.

5. The *epilepsy*, 6. *madness*, 7. the *palsy*, and 8. the *apoplexy*, complete the group of diseases produced by spirituous liquors. I do not assert that these disorders are never produced by any other causes, but I maintain that spirituous liquors are the most frequent causes of them, and that when a predisposition to them is produced by other causes, they are rendered more certain and more dangerous by the intemperate use of spirits.

I have only named a few of the principal disorders which are produced by spirituous liquors. It would take up a volume to describe how much other disorders, natural to the human body, are increased and complicated by them. Every species of inflammatory and putrid fever, is rendered more frequent and more obstinate, by the use of spirituous liquors.

The danger to life from the diseases which have been mentioned is well known. I do not think it extravagant therefore to repeat here, what has been often said, that spirituous liquors destroy more lives than the sword. War has its intervals of destruction—but spirits operate at all times and seasons upon human life.

If we advance a step further, and examine the effects of spirituous liquors upon the *mind*, the prospect will be still more distressing and terrible. Their first effects here, shew themselves in the *temper*. I have constantly observed men who are intoxicated in any degree with spirits, to be peevish and quarrelsome; after a while, they lose by degrees the *moral* sense. They violate promises and engagements without shame or remorse. From these deficiencies in veracity and integrity, they pass on to crimes of a more heinous nature. It would dishonour human nature only to name them.

The next operation of ardent spirits is upon the *understanding*. This sublime power

of the mind is firſt *debilitated* in hard drinkers.—They diſcover a torpor in every mental exertion, even when they are not under the immediate influence of ſpirits. To this debility in the underſtanding, ſucceed the loſs of *memory*, and the *perverſion* of all the intellectual powers in *melancholy* and *madneſs*, and in ſome caſes the total *extinction* of them in *idiotiſm*.——

Let us next turn our eyes from the effects of ſpirits upon the body and mind, to their effects upon *property*; and here freſh ſcenes of miſery open to our view. Among the inhabitants of cities, they produce debts, diſgrace, and bankruptcy. Among farmers, they produce idleneſs with its uſual conſequences, ſuch as houſes without windows—barns without roofs—gardens without incloſures—fields without fences—hogs without yokes—ſheep without wool—meagre cattle—feeble horſes—and half clad dirty children, without principles, morals, or manners.——This picture is not exaggerated. I appeal to the obſervations of my countrymen, whether ſuch ſcenes of wretchedneſs do not follow the tracks of ſpirituous liquors, in every part of the united ſtates.

Thus have I, in a few words, pointed out the effects of ſpirituous liquors upon the bodies, minds, and eſtates of my fellow-citizens.—Their miſchiefs may be ſummed up in a few words. They fill our church-yards with premature graves; they deface the image of God in the ſoul; they derange or deſtroy the intellectual powers; they fill the ſheriff's docket with executions; they croud our hoſpitals with patients, and our jails with criminals; they lead to places of public ignominy and puniſhment; and laſtly, they people the regions—but it belongs to another profeſſion to ſhew their terrible conſequences in the future world.

He next combats ſome prejudices in favour of the uſe of ſpirituous liquors; and mentions thoſe caſes in which they may be uſed with advantage:

There are *three* occaſions in which ſpirits have been thought neceſſary and uſeful.

1. In very cold weather.
2. In very warm weather. And
3. In times of hard labour.

1. There cannot be a greater error than to ſuppoſe that ſpirituous liquors leſſen the effects of cold upon the body. On the contrary, I maintain that they always render the body more liable to be affected and injured by cold. The temporary warmth they produce, is always ſucceeded by chilline's. If any thing, beſides warm cloathing and exerciſe, is neceſſary to warm the body in cold weather, a plentiful meal of wholeſome food is at all times ſufficient for that purpoſe. This, by ſtimulating the ſtomach, invigorates the whole ſyſtem, and thus renders it leſs ſenſible of the cold.

2. It is equally abſurd to ſuppoſe that ſpirituous liquors leſſen the effects of heat upon the body. So far from it, they rather increaſe them. They add an internal heat to the external heat of the ſun; they diſpoſe to fevers and inflammations of the moſt dangerous kind; they produce preternatural ſweats, which weaken, inſtead of an uniform and gentle perſpiration, which exhilerates the body. Half the diſeaſes which are ſaid to be produced by warm weather, I am perſuaded are produced by the ſpirits which are ſwallowed to leſſen its effects upon the ſyſtem.

3. I maintain, with equal confidence, that ſpirituous liquors do not leſſen the effects of hard labour upon the body. Look at the horſe, with every muſcle of his body ſwelled from morning till night in the plow, or the team, does he make ſigns for ſpirits to enable him to cleave the earth, or to climb a hill?—No, He requires nothing but cool water and ſubſtantial food. There is neither ſtrength nor nouriſhment in ſpirituous liquors. If they produce vigour in labour, it is of a tranſient nature, and is always ſucceeded by a ſenſe of weakneſs and fatigue. Theſe facts are founded in obſervation; for I have repeatedly ſeen thoſe men perform the greateſt exploits in work, both as to their degrees and duration, who never taſted ſpirituous liquors.

But are there no conditions of the human body in which ſpirituous liquors are required?—Yes, there are; 1ſt. In thoſe caſes where the body has been exhauſted by any cauſes, and faintneſs, or a ſtoppage in the circulation of the blood has been produced, the ſudden ſtimulus of ſpirits may be neceſſary. In this caſe we comply ſtrictly with the advice of Solomon, who confines the uſe of "ſtrong drink" only to him

"that is ready to perish!' And 2dly. When the body has been long exposed to wet weather, and more especially if cold be joined with it, a moderate quantity of spirits is not only proper but highly useful to obviate debility, and thus to prevent a fever. I take these to be the only two cases that can occur, in which spirituous liquors are innocent or necessary.

In the room of spirits Dr. Rush recommends cyder, beer, wine, melasses and water, the juice of the sugar maple, vinegar and water sweetened with sugar or melasses, buttermilk and water, and punch, provided it be drunk *weak*, in *moderate* quantities, and in warm weather *only*. He describes the respective properties of these drinks, and shows that they are all innocent and wholesome.

To counteract the effects of fatigue on the body, the stomach should be *constantly*, but *moderately*, stimulated. For this purpose, labourers should eat four or five times a day in harvest, or at other seasons of great bodily exertion. The food should be *solid*, consisting chiefly of salted meat; and the vegetables used with it should possess some active properties. Onions and garlic are of a very cordial nature. Certain sweet substances, as ginger-bread, are also happily calculated to obviate the debility which is so apt to be brought on by labour. All the substances that have been mentioned "lessen the necessity for cordial drinks; and they impart *equal* and *durable* strength to every part of the system."

The following salutary cautions are founded in reason and experience, and ought to be attended to:

There are certain classes of people to whom I beg leave to suggest a caution or two upon the use of spirituous liquors

1. Valetudinarians, especially those who labour under disorders of the stomach and bowels, are very apt to fly to spirits for relief Let such people be cautious how they repeat this dangerous remedy. I have known many men and women, of excellent characters and principles, who have been betrayed, by occasional doses of gin or brandy to ease the cholic, into the love of spirituous liquors, insomuch that they have afterwards fallen sacrifices to their fatal effects. The different preparations of opium are a thousand times more safe and innocent than spirituous liquors, in all spasmodic affections of the stomach and bowels. So apprehensive am I of the danger of contracting a love for spirituous liquors, by accustoming the stomach to their stimulus, that I think the fewer medicines we exhibit in spirituous vehicles the better.

2. Some people, from living in countries subject to the intermitting fever, endeavour to fortify themselves against it by two or three glasses of bitters made with spirits every day.—There is great danger of men becoming sots from this practice Besides, this mode of preventing intermittents is by no means a certain one A much better security against them is to be found in the Jesuits bark. A tea-spoon full of this excellent medicine taken every morning during the sickly season, has in many instances preserved whole families, in the neighbourhood of rivers and mill-ponds, from fevers of all kinds. If Jesuits bark cannot be had, a gill or half a pint of a strong infusion of centaury, camomile, wormwood or rue, in *water*, with a little calamus mixed with it, may be taken with nearly the same advantage as the bark, every morning. Those who live in a sickly part of the country, and cannot procure the bark, or any of the bitters which have been mentioned, I would advise to avoid the morning and evening air in the sickly months—to kindle fires in their houses on damp days, and in cool evenings throughout the whole summer, and to put on woolen cloathing about the first week in September. The last part of these directions applies only to the inhabitants of the middle states. These cautions I am persuaded, will be more effectual in preventing autumnal fevers than the best preparations that can be made from bitters in spirits.

3. Men who follow professions that require a constant exercise of the mind or body, or perhaps both, are very apt to seek relief from fatigue in spirituous liquors. To such persons I would beg leave to recommend the use of TEA instead of spirits.

this gentle ſtimulus, by reſtoring excitement, removes fatigue, and invigorates the whole ſyſtem. I am no advocate for the general or exceſſive uſe of tea.—When drank too ſtrong, it is hurtful, eſpecially to the female conſtitution: but when drank of a moderate degree of ſtrength, and in moderate quantities, with ſugar and cream, or milk, I believe it is in general innocent, and at all times to be preferred to ſpirituous liquors.

To every claſs of my readers, I beg leave to ſuggeſt a caution againſt the uſe of TODDY. I acknowledge that I have known ſome men, who, by limiting its ſtrength conſtantly, by meaſuring the ſpirit and water, and who by drinking it *only* with their *meals*, have drank toddy for many years without ſuffering in any degree from it; but I have known many more who have been inſenſibly led from drinking toddy for their conſtant drink, to take drams in the morning, and have afterwards paid their lives as the price of their folly. I ſhall ſelect one caſe from among many that have come within the compaſs of my knowledge, to ſhew the ordinary progreſs of intemperance in the uſe of ſpirituous liquors.—A gentleman, once of a fair and ſober character, in the city of Philadelphia, for many years drank toddy as his conſtant drink. From this he proceeded to drink grog. After a while nothing would ſatisf him but ſlings made of equal parts of rum and water, with a little ſugar. From ſlings he advanced to raw rum—and from common rum to Jamaica ſpirits. Here he reſted for a few months; but at laſt he found even Jamaica ſpirits were not ſtrong enough to warm his ſtomach, and he made it a conſtant practice to throw a table-ſpoonful of ground pepper into each glaſs of his ſpirits, in order (to uſe his own expreſſion) "to take off their coldneſs."—It is hardly neceſſary to add, that he ſoon afterwards died a martyr to his own intemperance.

That drunkenneſs is an alarming vice, when taken in a political point of view, will appear from the following ſenſible obſervation.

A people corrupted with ſtrong drink cannot long be a *free* people. The rulers of ſuch a community will ſoon partake of the vices of that maſs from which they were ſecreted, and all our laws and governments will ſooner or later bear the ſame marks of the effects of ſpirituous liquors which were deſcribed formerly upon individuals. I ſubmit it therefore to the conſideration of our rulers, whether more laws ſhould not be made to increaſe the expence, and leſſen the conſumption of ſpirituous liquors, and whether ſome mark of public infamy ſhould not be inflicted by law upon every man, convicted before a common magiſtrate of drunkenneſs.

The pamphlet is accompanied with, "A moral and phyſical thermometer; or a ſcale of the progreſs of temperance and intemperance," in which the effects of different liquors are exhibited, at one view, in their proper order. This was *originally* publiſhed by Dr. Ruſh, in the Columbian magazine for January 1789, to which we beg leave to refer the reader. It has ſince been republiſhed in ſeveral periodical works in Europe; in all of which it is erroneouſly aſcribed to Dr. Lettſom, of London.

The NEW-ENGLAND FARMER; *or* GEORGICAL DICTIONARY.

(Concluded from page 249.)

UNDER the article "Improvement of lands" our author has ſome very judicious and uſeful obſervations.—The following extracts merit the particular attention of our agricultural readers:

If a field be not too far exhauſted, laying it to clover will recruit it, if the ſoil be deep, and ſuitable for clover. But the graſs ſhould be fed off, not mowed.

The beſt management would be, not to ſuffer lands to become ſo poor as to need much recruiting; but to keep them, at leaſt, in the ſame degree of richneſs, as they

are when newly cleared. There is great loſs in cropping land ſo ſeverely as to wear it out, and uſing methods afterwards to recruit it. For, by doing this, we muſt be content with crops for ſeveral years, which will ſcarcely pay the coſt of culture: Whereas, by a judicious courſe of tillage, if the ſeaſons prove fruitful, profitable crops of ſome kind or other may be always obtained.

A good improving courſe may be, 1. Potatoes on green ſward land, well dunged. 2. Maize dunged. 3 Rye. 4. Clover two years. 5. Wheat. The ſecond courſe may be, 1. Peaſe, beans, rye, or potatoes. 2. Maize, hemp, flax, barley, or oats, dunged. The third courſe 1. Rye. 2. Clover two years. 3. Wheat. I am convinced that, by ſuch a management, with deep and frequent ploughings, our lands in general would yield more than twice as much as they do at preſent.

It is a deſpicable way of farming, to expend forty ſhillings on a crop that is worth no more than forty ſhillings. The landholder is, in fact, no richer than the pooreſt labourer. But if the crop were double to the coſt of culture, the farmer would receive ſome intereſt for his land; and might lay up ſomething to ſupport him when he is paſt his labour, as well as lighten his labours at preſent. Such a degree of improvement would enable farmers to provide ſettlements for more of their ſons near home, than they can at preſent; not only as they would gain ſomething to purchaſe lands with, but becauſe fifty acres would afford a better living, than a hundred have hitherto.

Some may inconſiderately think, that he who raiſes twenty buſhels from an acre, has only double the advantage that he has who raiſes ten. But if ten only juſt pay for the culture, ſeed, fencing and taxes, the latter has no advantage at all from his land; and is in no better a condition than he that buys his bread; while the former clearly gains ten buſhels from an acre. The more a farmer gets in a crop, over and above paying neceſſary charges, the greater is his clear gain, as it is called.

I would intreat farmers to conſider that the coſt of raiſing a poor crop, one time with another, is nearly as much as that of raiſing a large one. There is the ſame expended in fencing—the ſame tax paid—the ſame quantity of ſeed ſown—the ſame almoſt expended in ploughing, as rich land ploughs ſo much more eaſily than poor, as to make up for the extra number of ploughings in a courſe of tillage.—I may add, there is the ſame or more labour in thraſhing.

The advantages reſulting from a diviſion of paſture-lands, into lots, are thus deſcribed:

As to cleared paſtures, it is not right to turn in all ſorts of cattle promiſcuouſly. Milch kine, working oxen, and fatting beaſts, ſhould have the firſt feeding of an enclоſure. Afterwards, ſheep and horſes. When the firſt lot is thus fed off, it ſhould be ſhut up, and the dung that has been dropped ſhould be beat to pieces, and well ſcattered. Afterwards, the ſecond paſture ſhould be treated in the ſame manner, and the reſt in courſe, feeding the wetteſt paſture lateſt, that the ſoil may be leſs potched.

Something conſiderable is ſaved by letting all ſorts of grazing animals take their turn in a paſture. By means of this, nearly all the herbage produced will be eaten; much of which would otherwiſe be loſt. Horſes will eat the leavings of horned cattle; and ſheep will eat ſome things that both the one and the other leave.

Let the ſtock of a farmer be greater or leſs, he ſhould have at leaſt four enclоſures of paſture land. One enclоſure may be fed two weeks, and then ſhut up to grow. Then another. Each one will recruit well in ſix weeks; and each will have this ſpace of time to recruit.

Feeding paſtures in rotation, is of greater advantage than ſome are apt to imagine. One acre, managed according to the above directions, will turn to better account, than three acres in the common way.

On the important ſubject of a "rotation of crops" Mr. Deane is not very full. He concludes thus:

Reaſoning from experience and obſervation, I am led to believe, that the following are as good courſes, as may be expected to be introduced in this country.—On light warm ſoils, the firſt year, maize, peaſe, or potatoes: 2d year, rye, barley, or buckwheat: The 3d and 4th, clover: The 5th, wheat: The 6th and 7th, clover. On cold and ſtiff ſoils, 1ſt, oats or potatoes: 2d, potatoes well dunged: 3d, flax or wheat: 4th, Graſs, and ſo on till it needs to be broken up again.—Though theſe may ſerve for general rules, yet as there is a great variety in ſoils, and ſome can obtain manure in greater plenty than others, each farmer muſt endeavour to accommodate his courſes to his ſoil and other circumſtances.

THE

Columbian Parnaſſiad.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

GENIUS; *an irregular* ODE.

"LET *there be light!*"——th' Almighty ſpoke——
Obſervant of the great command,
All ſhould the ſole Supreme invoke
Science to ſpread o'er every land;
Science! to whom ſuperior powers are given,
The friend of man, and delegate of heaven.

"*Let there be light!*"——th'angelick throng,
Silent, ſurveyed the ſpacious void;
Then echoed in their cheerful ſong,
(Still in Jehovah's praiſe employed
Serving in truth the univerſal cauſe)
And ſang "*let there be light,*"——and light there was.

Homer! ſtand forth!—thy genius known,
To thee we every tribute pay;
Thy fancy raiſed the poet's throne,
Which future ages ſhall obey.
By thee full many a realm was taught to glow;
But *Shakeſpeare* tears the laurel from thy brow.

Pindar! how lofty were thy flights!—
Thy ſtyle to folly oft invites.
Trampling o'er conſecrated ground,
Full many a poet treads the tedious round.
Armour rattling, chariots driven
O'er the vaſt Olympic plain,
Might ſome heroes raiſe to heaven;
Now ſuch follies we diſdain.
But ſhould we their due merits fairly ſcan,
We now muſt praiſe the horſe, and now the man.

Dryden to *Philip's* ſon a fane has reared,
A temple ſtronger than the hero's name;
Though like a god by ſome he was revered
The bard has more illuſtrious made his fame.
Hear'ſt thou?—can thy mind refrain
From applauding *Dryden's* ſtrain?
Earth the ſweeteſt airs reſounding,
Skies thoſe ſweeteſt airs rebounding—
Ambition for a moment ſinks to reſt,
And valour droops, repoſed on beauty's breaſt.

Pope! on the buſt of *Dryden* ſtill recline,
Genius was his, and elegance was thine:
May ye ſtill flouriſh in eternal fame,
Till *Hayley* ſhall aſſert an equal name!
Congreve! be ſilent!——*Sheridan!* we hear;
We ſmile with *Steele;* but *Addiſon* revere.
Siddons! we own thy imitative powers
Are truly great——but is not *Morris* ours?
Painting! may thy canvaſs glow!
Let thy vivid colours ſhow
What nature has expreſſed?
Diſplay the likeneſs—bold—alive—
Let art with nature fairly ſtrive;——
And both will bow to WEST.

Patriot! philoſopher! and ſage!*
Immortal be thy name!
Virtue ſhall ſpread thy worth through every age,
And wiſdom celebrate thy fame.
In council wiſe, firm in debate,
Thy virtue oft preſerved each ſtate:
Thoſe ſtates acknowledged flouriſhing and free,
Shall yield the palm of genius ſtill to thee.
GENIUS! ſtand forth! with thee conduct the arts,
To thee obedient may they ever prove!
Correct our manners, dignify our hearts,
And bind us in the bands of genuine love.

M.

* *Dr. Franklin.*

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

DOCILITY, *a* POEM.

(*Respectfully addressed to Mothers.*)

OF nature and of sentiment the child,
At once attentive, regular, and mild,
Docility! to thee my voice I raise,
And mean to grace thee with no common praise.
As he who, from the tow'ring mountain's height,
Surveys, with mingled terror and delight,
The steep descent, the slowly waving wood,
Th' extended valley, and the winding flood;
Heaven's canopy extended o'er his head;
And fields, with nature's bounty overspread;——
On the *Great Cause* due praises must bestow,
And, fired his breast, with double rapture glow;
Thus equal transport rushes on my mind,
When, mildly in the bowers of hope reclined,
The growing prospects of our land I view,
And see parental graces bloom anew.
Mild be the voice, and placid be the strains,
Which sooth the infant's mind, and hush his pains:
Be every object banished from his sight,
Which may his heart to vanity incite.
Your sentiments let reason ever guide,
Nor madly rouse the latent sparks of pride.
On nature's voice and nature's smiles depend;
Thus they your pious labours will befriend.
Form to docility the yielding heart,
And every bliss, which man can hope, impart.
Can harshness gentleness of soul create?
It always fear promotes, and often hate;
Those, who my admonitions proudly scorn,
Grapes may expect to gather— from the thorn.
To this advice, ye mothers, still attend;
With gentle hand the human osier bend.
Thus shall *docility* reward your pains,
The garden grace, or flourish on the plains.
Let not false tenderness your hearts betray!
They who superior virtues might display,
From weak indulgence reap severest woes——
Fribbles in youth, and antiquated beaux.
From such no sweets their country can derive;
And oft the drones infect the industrious hive.
Be good examples present to their view!——
Thus shall they meanness scorn, and worth pursue;
And boast (such honour many a dame has gained)
Instruction from their mothers' breasts thus drained.
Ye matrons! to this solemn strain attend;
Your country's glory must on you depend:
Vain is the lustre science can bestow,
Unless the heart be taught with truth to glow;
How weak th' exertions of the strongest hand,
Unless the youth acknowledge just command!
Kindling the hero's and the patriot's fire,
Valour ye teach, and eloquence inspire.
Approach! ye happier years! when worth shall shine
On these blests coasts, with splendour half divine;
When by the world this truth shall be confessed,——
The docile youth in manhood still is blest.

E.

Philadelphia, 1791.

To the EDITOR *of the* UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

SIR,

By giving the inclosed a place in your useful and entertaining miscellany you will oblige

yours &c.

A. B.

Addressed to Mrs. F——R *of* AMWELL, NEW JERSEY; *On the death of her Son, a child of* 15 *months old.*

WHY does the mother's stricken heart
Incessantly repine?
Why find it still so hard to part,
And *innocence* resign?

From sin, from pain, and sorrow torn,
An offering due to heaven;
For that blest end the babe was born,
Just lent but, never given.

His tuneful ear,* sublime, refined,
Angelic harps shall hear;
While rapture strikes his opening mind,
When radiant forms appear.

With chaplets twined from sacred bowers
A fragrant wreath he wears,
Not fading, but immortal flowers,
Each shining temple bears.

Himself a flower, thus early cropped,
Was handed to the tomb;
Death your *Sweet William* only lopped—
In paradise to bloom.

LAURA.

December 20*th*, 1790.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

INDUSTRY, *an* ODE.

GO to the ant, thou sluggard! go;
And learn to shield thyself from woe.
Useless, but to herself and race,
Yet in her toils such worth we trace,
As proves, the species was designed
To warn, and to direct mankind.

Consult the bees——the bees will show
From industry what joys must flow.
Whether they roam the spacious field,
Or to the hive their labours yield,
We own, the providential plan
Conduces to the bliss of man.

Search nature through, with curious eye,
And such strong proofs thou must descry
Of instinct, planning general good,
As can be scarce misunderstood.
Instinct, whilst passion warps the soul,
Leads without windings to its goal.

Should we to instinct therefore bow,
And reason's empire disavow?——
Scorned be the thought!——the human mind
For nobler objects was designed.
To earth and heaven at once allied,
Reason our hearts should ever guide.

Reason! to thee our vows we pay;
Thy dictates may we still obey!
Let the wild savage as he roves,
Pluck casual fruits from nature's groves;
To such no merit we assign;
To-day they feast, to-morrow pine.

One type of universal love,
Thus, industry! thy merits prove,
That man, improved by reason's voice,
Should on a larger scale rejoice;
To thee and truth devote his soul,
And grace the vast, "stupendous whole."

Each herb, that springs; each flower, that blows;
Should charm our minds, like Sharon's rose.
Where horrid forests load the plain
Soon shall we view the waving grain;
And navigation seek those shores,
Where now th'unconquered torrent roars.

Ye monsters of the wood! retreat;
Where howls the wolf, the lambs shall bleat.
Tremble at Industry——intent
T'accelerate the grand event,
When man from rage and war shall cease,
She counsels universal peace.

E'en the fierce Indian shall confess,
That industry can truly bless;
That hand, the tomahawk which wields,
Shall guide the plow o'er fertile fields,
And, owning cultivation's aid,
Bid the strong mansion rear its head.

Still, industry! our hearts refine;
In every art and science shine!
And, whilst thy labours earth improve,
Lead to the paths of heavenly love!
There by the virtuous 'tis confessed,
Thy merits will be truly blest.

Philadelphia, 1791.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

Epistle from SYLVIA *to* DAMON; *accompanied with a small* writing-desk, *containing a* letter-case *and* broken mirror, *which the author had received, when very young, as a premium for her proficiency in writing.*

THIS small *machine*, which *Sylvia* once obtain'd,
When well form'd strokes the humble prize had gain'd,
Has witness'd each emotion of her heart;
Each line where love has glow'd, unmix'd with art.
Here, whena parent's absence I deplor'd,
My infant mind it's early sorrows pour'd:
Here every tender wish that friendship form'd;

* *Alluding to the child's shewing an uncommon ear for music.*

Each scene with which the *muse* my bosom warm'd;
Each soft emotion of my guardless heart;
I on this *tablet* simply did impart.
To thy lov'd hands I now the prize resign,
Convinc'd that it will please, since once 'twas mine.
I know its *form* by age is furrow'd o'er;
A *mirror* too it own'd, which is no more;
But marks which it has gain'd by serving me,
Thine eyes with no unpleasing glance may see:
Nor need the broken *mirror* raise a sigh;
The *spotless paper* shall its loss supply.
That to reflect the face was but design'd
While *this* shall shew each beauty of thy mind:
The *glass* unfaithful to its trust had prov'd,
And lost thy image as thy form remov'd;
But *paper* shall thy pictur'd heart retain,
Across the distant land and rolling main:
That heart whose virtues charm thy *Sylvia* more
Than all the beauties common minds adore!
Then take this humble present from my hand,
And only let me urge one soft command:—
Let neither strife nor anger here have part,
But keep it for the *commerce* of the *heart;*
Here let the generous wish of freedom glow;
Here let each line from fond affection flow;
And sacred may this tablet ever prove
To *duty*, *friendship*, *liberty*, and *love!*

SYLVIA.

Philad. 1775.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM

The ROSE *and* LILLY *a Tale: Addressed to the* FAIR.

IN days of yore when *beast* and *bird*,
Nay *trees* and *shrubs* could speak;
When language from the grazing herd
Filled every green retreat.

One radiant morning, when the dews
Shone glistening on the plains;
Where man the rural scheme pursues,
And artless nature reigns,

I rose to take the freshened air,
To catch the early breeze;
And varied opening beauty share,
Beneath expanding trees.

A snow white *lilly* and a *rose*,
In near alliance stood;
Each, chief in kind, did sweets disclose,
To scent a neighbouring wood;

The boasting *rose* thus spake her joy,
And blushed a deeper bloom,
"My charms shall every pen employ,
To paint my high perfume.

Ages on ages shall roll round,
But to augment my fame;
I first of flowers shall still be found,
And chief of honours claim.

The pouting lips of virgins fair,
Shall in my buds be seen;
My flowers expanding shall compare
With beauty's radiant queen.

Then, when I've scented field and grove
With rich Damascus sweets, *
Transplanted by the hand of love,
From shades and green retreats,

I shall some panting bosom grace,
There closely prest remain;
Where no vain rival gains a place
I shall my rank maintain.

Then shall I swell the poet's strain,
A constant theme for verse;
Beneath the pencil too I'll reign,
To shew what bards rehearse.

But you, faint languid *lilly* white,
Who can your bloom espy?
Dare you the wand'ring eye invite
When I am placed so nigh?"

The lofty *lilly* raised her head,
And modest thus replied,
While balmy fragrance round her shed,
As to the *rose* she cried,

"Vain shrub, all boasting I forbear,
Although *Apollo's* swains
In sostest numbers shall declare
My whiteness in their strains,

Nor will I vaunt of rich perfumes,
To scent the garden's walk:
Boast you of all these transient blooms;
Such be thy trivial talk.

A nobler theme I have in store,
Reserved for me alone,
One grand pre-eminence that's more
Than all thou hast made known.

* *The city of Damascus was famous for fine gardens, and particularly for the richest roses; whence the term* damask rose.

He who created all on earth
Did my pure charm declare;
That being who gave nature birth,
Proclaimed, nought was so fair.

That Asian monarchs, high arrayed
In eastern pomp and pride, *
Such genuine beauties ne'er displayed
As did in me reside!"

The *rose*, abashed, then bent her head,
Nor did the theme resume;
Low to the earth her foliage spread,
Nor further dared presume.

Then, punished for her haughty boast,
Immediate shot the thorn;
To prove that sweetness oft is lost,
When guarded round with scorn.

Then take a hint, each haughty fair,
Nor think the tale beneath your ear.

LAURA.

Extract from PETER PINDAR'S *Epistle to* MR. BRUCE.

PETER contrasts a *simple narrative* of his own travels, with the *description* which *would* have been given of them by the explorer of Abyssinia.

"O had thy curious eye beheld, like mine,
The isle† which glads the heart with richest wine!—
Beneath its vines, with common clusters crown'd,
At eve my wand'ring steps a passage found,
Where rose the hut, and, neither rich nor poor,
The wife and husband, seated at the door,
Touch'd, when the labours of the day were done,
The wire of music to the setting sun;
Where, blest, a tender offspring, ranged around,
Join'd their small voices to the silver sound.
But had *thine* eyes this simple scene explor'd,
The man at once had sprung a sceptred lord;
Princes and princesses the *bearns* had been;
The hut a palace, and the wife a queen;
Their golden harps had ravish'd thy two ears,
And beggar'd all the music of the spheres:
So kind is nature always pleas'd to be,
When visited by favourites like *thee*.—
Strange! thou hast seen the land, that, to its shame,
Ne'er heard our good king's virtues, nor his name!
I've only seen those regions, let me say,
Where his great *virtues* never found their way.
Alas, I never met with royal scenes!
Nor vomits gave to Abyssinian queens!
Drew not from royal arms the purple tide,
Nor scotch'd with fleams, a sceptred lady's hide:
Nor, in anatomy so very stout,
Ventur'd to turn a princes inside out;
Nor, blushing, stripp'd me to the very skin,
To give a royal blackamoor a grin.
I saw no king, whose subjects form'd a riot,
And, imp-like, howl'd around him for his quiet.
Nor have I been where men (what loss, alas!)
Kill half a cow — and turn the rest to grass."

* *Math. Chap.* vi *ver.* 28, 29, 30.

† *Madeira.*

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

EMILY; *a* SONG.

IS Emily admir'd? each swain
Replies, accordant to my strain,
That she, though by the fop pursu'd,
Is by the wise and worthy woo'd.

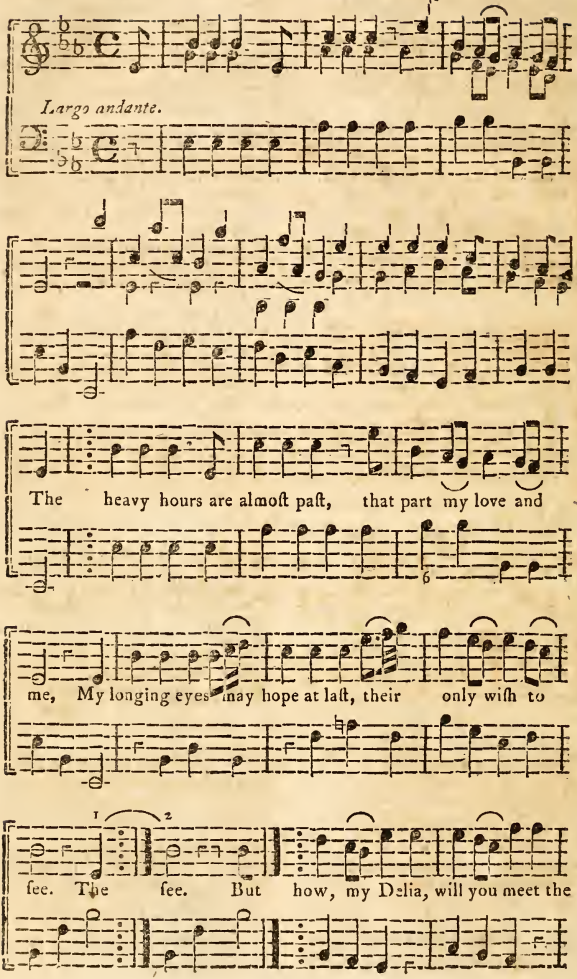
Parental accents she regards;
The trifler and the fool discards;
And, for a worthy wife design'd,
Bends to domestic joys her mind.

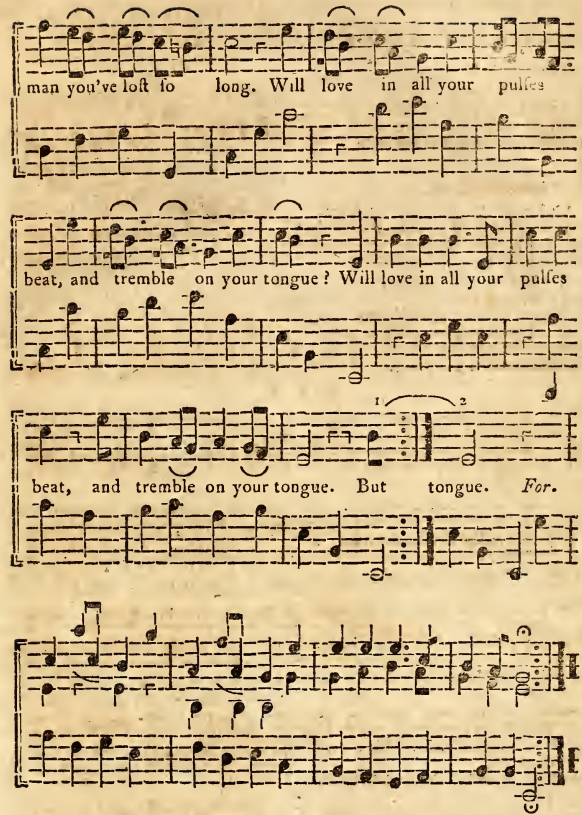
When cares attempt her mind to jar,
She gently touches her guittar.
Her fingers can our heart rejoice,
Sweet as the music of her voice.

Since education has conferr'd,
Precepts, from which she ne'er has err'd,
T'is hoped that she shall shine, through life,
A virtuous *maid*— an honoured *wife*.

Philadelphia.

S O N G.


Largo andante.
The heavy hours are almoſt paſt, that part my love and
me, My longing eyes may hope at laſt, their only wiſh to
1
2
ſee. The ſee. But how, my Delia, will you meet the



Will you in every look declare
Your heart is ſtill the ſame:
And heal each idly anxious care
Our fears in abſence frame?
Thus, *Delia*, thus I paint the ſcene
When we ſhall ſhortly meet;
And try what yet remains between,
Of loitering time to cheat.

But if the dream that ſooths my mind
Shall falſe and groundleſs prove:
If I am doomed at length to find
You have forgot to love;
All I of *Venus* aſk is this,
No more to let us join;
But grant me here the flattering bliſs,
To die, and think you mine.

FOR THE UNIVERSAL ASYLUM.

The DYING SWAIN.

SHOULD'ST thou, Polly! slight my vows,
And take Damon for thy spouse,
I shall fill thee with affright,
And still *haunt* thee day and night.

The Reply.

ALL your threatenings are despis'd;
Damon by the good is prized.
Since I in his vows delight,
He will guard me every night.
And, whilst real bliss we boast,
Shall I tremble at a *ghost?*
Cease then, spectre! to affright me;
Flesh and blood can more delight me.
Dying swains to maids discover,
Each should seek a lively lover.

E.

SONNET *to* HOPE.

By Miss Helen-Maria Williams.

OH, ever skill'd to wear the form we love!
To bid the shapes of fear and grief depart,
Come, gentle hope! with one gay smile remove
The lasting sadness of an aching heart.

Thy voice, benign enchantress! let me hear;
Say that for me some pleasures yet shall bloom!
That fancy's radiance, friendship's precious tear,
Shall soften, or shall chace misfortune's gloom.——

But come not glowing in the dazzling ray,
Which once with dear illusions charm'd my eye!
Oh strew no more, sweet flatterer! on my way
The flowers I fondly thought too bright to die.

Visions less fair will sooth my pensive breast,
That asks not happiness, but longs for rest.

On the FASHIONABLE AMUSEMENT *of* WHIST.

By Mr. Pye.

"BUT say, what fashionable form appears,
Whose vacant brow reflection's aspect wears?
Who rolls the eye, in senseless sapience full,
In trifles wise, and venerably dull?——
I know him well.——In midnight fumes enclos'd
Of the *Virginian* weed while *Folly* doz'd,
Dullness advanced, with aldermanic tread,
In solemn silence, to the idiot's bed;
And in the produce of the stol'n embrace
The fathers sense, and mother's wit we trace:
Both with a parent's love their offspring kiss'd,
Presag'd his future fame, and call'd him *Whist.*
Far from the courtly race, in private bred,
With rural swains his early youth he led,
The cheering solace, by the wintry fire,
Of the fat parson or the drunken squire;
Till when each livelier game could charm no more,
And dear *Quadrille* itself became a bore,
Capricious taste, with novel nonsense fraught,
To town this scientific stranger brought,
Taught him the courtly circle's smile to share,
Till fashion bade him reign sole monarch there.
Struck with amaze, his sprightlier rivals fly
The chilling torpor of his gorgon eye:
Spadille no longer rears his sable shield,
Pam drops his halberd, and forsakes the field.——
See where around the silent vot'ries sit,
To radiant beauty blind, and deaf to wit;
Each vacant eye appears with wisdom fraught,
Each solemn blockhead looks as if he thought:
Ill temper vents her spleen without offence,
And pompous dulness triumphs over sense.
O strange extreme of fancy's wayward mood!
Distemper'd pleasure's sickly change of food,
Which loathing every taste of known delight,
Provokes with trash her blunted appetite!"——

The CHRONICLE.

CONGRESS *of the* UNITED STATES.

HISTORICAL SKETCH *of the Proceedings of* CONGRESS *during their* THIRD SESSION, *commencing on the 6th. December,* 1790, *in the City of* PHILADELPHIA.

(Continued from page 353.)

THE report of the secretary of the treasury, on the subject of a national bank, was transmitted, by the house of representatives, to the senate. Here it was referred to a committee, who reported a bill, which appears, by their journals, to have undergone a very lengthy discussion. We have already expressed our regret, respecting the indiscriminate secrecy of all deliberations in this branch of the national legislature:—This regret is increased, on the present occasion, by the importance of the subject. We should be particularly gratified, by a knowledge of the manner in which the question respecting the *constitutionality* of incorporating a national bank was discussed in the senate; but this we must not now hope for.—

The bill was reported, and received a *first* reading, on the 3d of January. On the 10th it was taken up for a *second* reading; and in this stage a very considerable debate must have taken place, for although it engaged the *daily* attention of the house, this reading was not completed till the 19th. Various motions appear on the journals—One, for limiting the term of incorporation to *seven* years, was amended by another, for the purpose of extending it to March the 4th 1815, in which form it passed, *yeas* 11; *Nays*, 10. It was afterwards agreed, however, to limit the term to the 4th day of March 1811. A motion for limiting the term of incorporation to the year 1801, was made and negatived—The bill was recommitted; and sundry amendments were reported and agreed to. The house proceeded to the *third* reading; and a motion was made to expunge the 12th section, which enacts that no other bank shall be established, by any future law of the united states, during the continuance of the corporation created by this act—This was negatived; nays, 18—yeas, 5.

On the 20th of January it was resolved that the bill do pass; and that it be engrossed, and carried to the house of representatives for concurrence.

On the 31st of Jan. this bill passed through a committee of the whole, in the house of representatives, without any amendments being proposed, and was reported to the house, who resolved that it should be taken up for a *third* reading on the following day. But when it was brought before the house next day, sundry objections were made, both to the constitutionality, and the expediency of the bill; and a re-commitment was moved for—but after spending the day in debate, the motion was lost.—The question now was—*Shall the bill pass?* This gave rise to a most interesting debate, which was continued every day from the *first* to the *eighth* of February, before a final decision took place.—The importance of the subject; the great share of public attention which it has excited; and the various opinions of the most enlightened men amongst us respecting it, require that we should be as full and comprehensive as possible in this part of our congressional history. We shall therefore lay before our readers the substance of the principal speeches, on both sides; particularly keeping in view what seems to have been the chief object of discussion, namely, the *constitutionality* of the bill. But it will not be expected, that when a member has made use of arguments which are *mere* repetitions of those used by previous speakers, those arguments should be given by us, a second time.

Mr. Madison took a general view of the advantages and disadvantages of banks. Under the former head he stated,—1st The aids they afford to mercantile enterprize. —2 Aids to merchants, by which they are enabled punctually to pay their duties.—3 Loans to the government, by which it may be enabled to comply with its engagements, when disappointed by deficiencies in the revenue, or delays in the collection of

it.—4th. In diminishing usury.—5th. In saving the wear of gold and silver, by retaining these metals in vaults, while they are represented, in circulation, by bank notes,—And 6th. In facilitating remittances between places where notes circulate.—The effect of the bank in raising the value of stocks had, he thought, been greatly over-rated.—The principal *disadvantages* were

1st. Banishing the precious metals, by substituting another circulating medium in their stead. This was admitted by the most enlightened advocates for banks, particularly by Smith, in his book on the Wealth of Nations. The common answer to this objection was that the money banished was replaced by something equally valuable. This, however true it might be generally, would not probably be the case in this country, at present; it was to be feared that the returns would not be in substantial articles, of permanent use.

2d. Exposing the public and individuals to all the calamitous consequences of a run on the bank in so extensive a country, whenever false rumours, bad management of the institution, an unfavourable balance of trade, or any other cause should produce such an event.

He objected to the plan of a single bank. The principal advantages would be better obtained from several banks, properly distributed. The aids to commerce could only be afforded at or very near the seat of the bank. The same was true of aids to merchants in the payment of customs. Anticipations of the government would also be the most convenient at the different places where the interest of the debt was to be paid. The case in America was different from that in England: the interest there was all due at one place, and the genius of the monarchy favoured the concentration of wealth and influence at the metropolis.

He thought the plan liable to other objections: It did not make so good a bargain for the public as was due to its interests. The charter to the bank of England had been granted for 11 years only, and was paid for by a loan to the government on terms better than could be elsewhere got. Every renewal of the charter had in like manner been purchased; in some instances, at a very high price. The same had been done by the banks of Genoa, Naples, and other like banks of circulation.

In making these remarks on the merits of the bill, he had reserved to himself, he said, the right to deny the authority of congress to pass it. He had entertained this opinion from the date of the constitution. His impression might perhaps be the stronger, because he well recollected that a power to grant charters of incorporation had been proposed in the general convention and rejected.

Is the power of establishing an incorporated bank *among the powers vested by the constitution in the legislature of the United States?* This is the question to be examined.

After some general remarks on the limitations of all political power, he took notice of the peculiar manner in which the federal government is limited. It is not a general grant, out of which particular powers are excepted—it is a grant of particular powers only, leaving the general mass in other hands. So it had been understood by its friends and its foes, and so it was to be interpreted.

As preliminaries to a right interpretation, he laid down the following rules:

An interpretation that destroys the very characteristic of the government cannot be just

Where a meaning is clear, the consequences, whatever they may be, are to be admitted—where doubtful, it is to be examined by its consequences.

In controverted cases, the meaning of the parties to the instrument, if to be collected by reasonable evidence, is a proper guide.

Cotemporary and concurrent expositions are a reasonable evidence of the meaning of the parties.

In admitting or rejecting a constructive authority, not only the degree of its incidentality to an express authority, is to be regarded, but the degree of its importance also; since on this will depend the probability or improbability of its being left to construction.

Reviewing the constitution with an eye to these positions, it was not possible to discover in it the power to incorporate a bank. The only clauses under which such a power could be pretended, are either—

1. *The power to lay and collect taxes to pay the debts, and provide for the common defence and general welfare:* Or,

2. *The power to borrow money on the credit of the United States:* Or,

3. *The power to paſs all laws neceſſary and proper to carry into execution thoſe powers.*

The bill did not come within the *firſt power*. It laid no tax to pay the debts, or provide for the general welfare. It laid no tax whatever. It was altogether foreign to the ſubject.

No argument could be drawn from the terms "common defence, and general welfare." The power, as to theſe general purpoſes, was limited to acts laying taxes for them; and the general purpoſes themſelves were limited and explained, by the particular enumeration ſubjoined. To underſtand theſe terms in any ſenſe that would juſtify the power in queſtion, would give to congreſs an unlimited power; would render nugatory the enumeration of particular powers; would ſuperſede all the powers reſerved to the ſtate governments. Theſe terms are copied from the articles of confederation; had it ever been pretended, that they were to be underſtood otherwiſe than as here explained?

It had been ſaid that "general welfare" meant caſes in which a general power might be exerciſed by congreſs, without interfering with the powers of the ſtates; and that the eſtabliſhment of a national bank was of this ſort. There were, he ſaid, ſeveral anſwers to this novel doctrine.

1. The propoſed bank would interfere ſo as indirectly to defeat a ſtate bank at the ſame place.—2. It would directly interfere with the rights of the ſtates, *to prohibit* as well as to eſtabliſh banks, and the circulation of bank notes. He mentioned a law of Virginia, actually prohibiting the circulation of notes payable to bearer. 3. Interference with the power of the ſtates was no conſtitutional criterion of the power of congreſs. If the power was not given, congreſs could not exerciſe it; if given, they might exerciſe it, although it ſhould interfere with the laws, or even the conſtitution of the ſtates.—4. If congreſs could incorporate a bank, merely becauſe the act would leave the ſtates free to eſtabliſh banks alſo, any other incorporations might be made by congreſs. They could incorporate companies for cutting canals, or even religious ſocieties, leaving ſimilar incorporations to the ſtates. Congreſs might even eſtabliſh religious teachers in every pariſh, and pay them out of the treaſury of the united ſtates, leaving other teachers unmoleſted in their functions.—Theſe inadmiſſible conſequences condemned the controverted principle.

The caſe of the bank eſtabliſhed by the former congreſs, had been cited as a precedent.—This was known, he ſaid, to have been the child of neceſſity. It never could be juſtified by the regular powers of the articles of confederation. Congreſs betrayed a conſciouſneſs of this in recommending to the ſtates to incorporate the bank alſo. They did not attempt to protect the bank notes by penalties againſt counterfeiters. Theſe were reſerved wholly to the authority of the ſtates.

The ſecond clauſe to be examined, is that which empowers congreſs to borrow money. Is this a bill to borrow money? It does not borrow a ſhilling Is there any fair conſtruction by which the bill can be deemed an exerciſe of the power to borrow money?—The obvious meaning of the power to borrow money, is that of accepting it from, and ſtipulating payment to, thoſe who are *able* and *willing* to lend.

To ſay that the power to borrow involves a power of creating the ability, where there may be the will, to lend, is not only eſtabliſhing a dangerous principle, as will be immediately ſhewn, but is as forced a conſtruction, as to ſay that it involves the power of compelling the will, where there may be the ability, to lend.

The *third clauſe* is that which gives the power to paſs all laws neceſſary and proper to execute the ſpecified powers.

Whatever meaning this clauſe may have, none can be admitted, that would give an unlimited diſcretion to congreſs.

Its meaning muſt, according to the natural and obvious force of the terms and the context, be limited to means *neceſſary* to the *end*, and *incident* to the *nature* of the ſpecified powers.

The clauſe is, in fact, merely declaratory of what would have reſulted by unavoidable implication, as the appropriate, and as it were, technical means of executing thoſe powers. In this ſenſe it had been explained by the friends of the conſtitution, and ratified by the ſtate conventions.

The eſſential characteriſtic of the government, as compoſed of limited and enumerated powers, would be deſtroyed, if inſtead of direct and incidental means, any means could be uſed, which, in the language of the preamble to the bill, 'might be conceived to be conducive to the ſucceſsful conducting of the finances; or might be *conceived* to *tend* to give *facility* to the obtaining of loans.' He urged an attention to the

diffuſe and ductile terms which had been found requiſite to cover the ſtretch of power contained in the bill. He compared them with the terms *neceſſary* and *proper*, uſed in the conſtitution, and aſked whether it was poſſible to view the two deſcriptions as ſynonimous, or the one as a fair and ſafe commentary on the other.

If, proceeded he, congreſs, by virtue of the power to borrow, can create the means of lending, and in purſuance of theſe means, can incorporate a bank, they may do any thing whatever creative of like means.

The Eaſt-India company has been a lender to the Britiſh government, as well as the bank, and the South-Sea company is a greater creditor than either. Congreſs then may incorporate ſimilar companies in the united ſtates, and that too not under the idea of regulating trade, but under that of borrowing money.

Private capitals are the chief reſources for loans to the Britiſh government. Whatever then may be conceived to favour the accumulation of capitals may be done by congreſs. They may incorporate manufacturers. They may give monopolies in every branch of domeſtic induſtry.

If, again, congreſs by virtue of the power to borrow money, can create the ability to lend, they may, by virtue of the power to levy money, create the ability to pay it. The ability to pay taxes depends on the general wealth of the ſociety, and this, on the general proſperity of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. Congreſs then may give bounties and make regulations on all theſe objects.

The ſtates have, it is allowed on all hands, a concurrent right to lay and collect taxes. This power is ſecured to them, not by its being expreſsly reſerved, but by its not being ceded by the conſtitution. The reaſons for the bill cannot be admitted, becauſe they would invalidate that right; why may it not be *conceived* by congreſs, that an uniform and excluſive impoſition of taxes, would, not leſs than the propoſed bank, 'be *conducive* to the ſucceſsful conducting of the national finances, and *tend* to *give facility* to the obtaining of revenue, for the uſe of the government?'

The doctrine of implication is always a tender one. The danger of it has been felt in other governments. The delicacy was felt in the adoption of our own; the danger may alſo be felt, if we do not keep cloſe to our chartered authorities.

Mark the reaſoning on which the validity of the bill depends. To borrow money is made the *end* and the accumulation of capitals, *implied* as the *means*. The accumulation of capitals is then the *end*, and a bank *implied* as the *means*. The bank is then the *end*, and a charter of incorporation, a monopoly, capital puniſhments, &c. *implied* as the *means*.

If implications, thus remote and thus multiplied, can be linked together, a chain may be formed that will reach every object of legiſlation, every object within the whole compaſs of political economy.

The latitude of interpretation required by the bill is condemned by the rule furniſhed by the conſtitution itſelf.

Congreſs have power "to regulate the value of money;" yet it expreſsly added (not left to be implied) that counterfeiters may be puniſhed.

They have the power "to declare war," to which armies are more incident, than incorporated banks, to borrowing; yet it is expreſsly added, the power "to raiſe and ſupport armies;" and to this again, the expreſs power "to make rules and regulations for the government of armies;" a like remark is applicable to the powers as to a navy.

The regulation and calling out of the militia are more appurtenant to war, than the propoſed bank, to borrowing; yet the former is not left to conſtruction.

The very power to borrow money is a leſs remote implication from the power of war, than an incorporated monopoly bank, from the power of borrowing—yet the power to borrow is not left to implication.

It is not pretended that every inſertion or omiſſion in the conſtitution is the effect of ſyſtematic attention. This is not the character of any human work, particularly the work of a body of men. The examples cited, with others that might be added, ſufficiently inculcate nevertheleſs a rule of interpretation, very different from that on which the bill reſts. They condemn the exerciſe of any power, particularly a great and important power, which is not evidently and neceſſarily involved in an expreſs power.

It cannot be denied that the power propoſed to be exerciſed is an important power.

As a charter of incorporation the bill creates an artificial perſon previouſly not exiſting in law. It confers important civil rights and attributes, which could not other-

wiſe be claimed. It is, though not preciſely ſimilar, at leaſt equivalent, to the naturalization of an alien, by which certain new civil characters are acquired by him. Would congreſs have had the power to naturalize, if it had not been expreſsly given?

In the power to make bye-laws, the bill delegated a ſort of legiſlative power, which is unqueſtionably an act of a high and important nature. He took notice of the only reſtraint on the bye-laws, that they were not to be contrary to the law and the conſtitution of the bank; and aſked what law was intended? If the law of the united ſtates, the ſcantineſs of their code would give a power, never before given to a corporation—and obnoxious to the ſtates, whoſe laws would then be ſuperſeded not only by the laws of congreſs, but the bye-laws of a corporation within their own juriſdiction. If the law intended, was the law of the ſtate, then the ſtate might make laws that would deſtroy an inſtitution of the united ſtates.

The bill gives a power to purchaſe and hold lands; congreſs themſelves could not purchaſe lands within a ſtate "without the conſent of its legiſlature." How could they delegate a power to others which they did not poſſeſs themſelves?

It takes from our ſucceſſors, who have equal rights with ourſelves, and with the aid of experience will be more capable of deciding on the ſubject, an opportunity of exerciſing that right, for an immoderate term

It takes from our conſtituents the opportunity of deliberating on the untried meaſure, although their hands are alſo to be tied by it for the ſame term.

It involves a monopoly, which affects the equal rights of every citizen.

It leads to a penal regulation, perhaps capital puniſhments, one of the moſt ſolemn acts of ſovereign authority.

From this view of the power of incorporation exerciſed in the bill, it could never be deemed an acceſſary or ſubaltern power, to be deduced by implication, as a means of executing another power; it was in its nature a diſtinct, an independent, and ſubſtantive prerogative, which not being enumerated in the conſtitution could never have been meant to be included in it, and not being included could never be rightfully exerciſed.

He here adverted to a diſtinction, which he ſaid had not been ſufficiently kept in view, between a power neceſſary and proper for the government or union, and a power neceſſary and proper for executing the enumerated powers. In the latter caſe, the powers included in each of the enumerated powers were not expreſſed, but to be drawn from the nature of each. In the former, the powers compoſing the government were expreſsly enumerated. This conſtituted the peculiar nature of the government; no power therefore not enumerated, could be inferred from the general nature of government. Had the power of making treaties, for example, been omitted, however neceſſary it might have been, the defect could only have been lamented, or ſupplied by an amendment of the conſtitution.

But the propoſed bank could not even be called neceſſary to the government; at moſt it could be but convenient. Its uſes to the government could be ſupplied by keeping the taxes a little in advance—by loans from individuals—by the other banks, over which the government would have equal command, nay greater, as it may grant or refuſe to theſe the privilege, and make a free and irrevocable gift to the propoſed bank, of uſing their notes in the federal revenue.

He proceeded next to the contemporary expoſitions given to the conſtitution.

The defence againſt the charge founded on the want of a bill of rights, preſuppoſed, he ſaid, that the powers not given were retained; and that thoſe given were not to be extended by remote implications. On any other ſuppoſition, the power of congreſs to abridge the freedom of the preſs, or the rights of conſcience, &c. could not have been diſproved.

The explanations in the ſtate conventions all turned on the ſame fundamental principle, that the terms "neceſſary and proper" gave no additional powers to thoſe enumerated.

The explanatory declarations and amendments accompanying the ratifications of the ſeveral ſtates formed a ſtriking evidence, wearing the ſame complexion. He referred thoſe who might doubt on the ſubject, to the ſeveral acts of ratification.

The explanatory amendments propoſed by congreſs themſelves, at leaſt, would be good authority with them; all theſe renunciations of power proceeded on a rule of conſtruction, excluding the latitude now contended for. Theſe explanations were

the more to be reſpected, as they had not only been propoſed by congreſs, but ratified by nearly three-fourths of the ſtates. He read ſeveral of the articles propoſed, remarking particularly on the 11th. and 12. the former, as guarding againſt a latitude of interpretation—the latter, as excluding every ſource of power not within the conſtitution itſelf.

With all this evidence of the ſenſe in which the conſtitution was underſtood and adopted, will it not be ſaid, if the bill ſhould paſs, that its adoption was brought about by one ſet of arguments, and that it is now adminiſtered under the influence of another ſet? and this reproach will have the keener ſting, becauſe it is applicable to ſo many individuals concerned in both the adoption and adminiſtration.

In fine, if the power were in the conſtitution, the immediate exerciſe of it cannot be eſſential—if not there, the exerciſe of it involves the guilt of uſurpation, and eſtabliſhes a precedent of interpretation, levelling all the barriers which limit the power of the general government, and protect thoſe of the ſtate governments. If the point be doubtful only, reſpect for ourſelves, who ought to ſhun the appearance of precipitancy and ambition; reſpect for our ſucceſſors, who ought not lightly to be deprived of the opportunity of exerciſing the rights of legiſlation; reſpect for our conſtituents who have had no opportunity of making known their ſentiments, and who are themſelves to be bound down to the meaſure for ſo long a period; all theſe conſiderations require that the irrevocable deciſion ſhould at leaſt be ſuſpended until another ſeſſion.

It appeared, on the whole, he concluded, that the power exerciſed by the bill was condemned by the ſilence of the conſtitution; was condemned by the rule of interpretation ariſing out of the conſtitution; was condemned by its tendency to deſtroy the main characteriſtic of the conſtitution; was condemned by the expoſitions of the friends of the conſtitution, whilſt depending before the public; was condemned by the apparent intention of the parties which ratified the conſtitution; was condemned by the explanatory amendments propoſed by congreſs themſelves to the conſtitution; and he hoped it would receive its final condemnation, by the vote of the houſe.

Mr. AMES ſtated ſundry advantages of banks, which might eaſily be deduced from a mere theoretic view of the principles of inſtitutions of this kind, were it not in our power to reſort to a leſs fallible teſt—the experience of other nations. In every country where banks had been tried their utility was ſo generally acknowledged as not to admit of a doubt.—But, ſaid he, inſtead of entering into an examination of the merits of a bank, and the rules by which we ought to be governed in eſtabliſhing one in the united ſtates, ſo that we may derive the greateſt poſſible benefits from it, we are unexpectedly called upon to diſcuſs a conſtitutional queſtion. We are told that the conſtitution will not authoriſe congreſs to incorporate the ſubſcribers to the bank. Let us examine the conſtitution, and if that forbids our proceeding we muſt reject the bill; though we ſhall do it with deep regret that ſuch an opportunity to ſerve our country muſt be ſuffered to eſcape, for the want of a conſtitutional power to improve it.

I never ſuſpected that the objections I have heard ſtated had exiſtence: I conſider them as diſcoveries; and had not the acute penetration of the gentleman from Virginia brought them to light, I am ſure that my own underſtanding would never have ſuggeſted them.

It ſeems ſtrange too that in our enlightened country, the public ſhould have been involved in equal blindneſs. While the exerciſe of even the lawful powers of government is diſputed—and a jealous eye is fixed on its proceedings; not a whiſper has been heard againſt its authority to eſtabliſh a bank.

Two queſtions occur: May congreſs exerciſe any powers which are not expreſſly given in the conſtitution, but may be deduced by a reaſonable conſtruction of that inſtrument? And, ſecondly, will ſuch a conſtruction warrant the eſtabliſhment of the bank?

The doctrine that powers which are not expreſſly veſted in congreſs may be implied has long been a bug-bear to a great many worthy perſons. They apprehend that congreſs, by putting conſtructions upon the conſtitution, will govern by its own arbitrary diſcretion; and therefore, that it ought to be bound to exerciſe the powers *expreſſly* given, and thoſe only.

If congreſs may not make laws conformably to the powers plainly implied, though not expreſſed in the frame of government, it is rather late in the day to adopt it as a

principle of conduct: A great part of our two years' labour is loft, and worfe than loft to the public, for we have fcarcely made a law in which we have not exercifed our difcretion with regard to the true intent of the conftitution. Any words but thofe ufed in that inftrument will be liable to a different interpretation. We may regulate trade—therefore we have taxed fhips, erected light-houfes, made laws to govern feamen, &c. becaufe we fay that they are the incidents to that power: The moft familiar and undifputed acts of legiflation will fhew, that we have adopted it as a fafe rule of action to legiflate beyond the letter of the conftitution.

He proceeded to enforce this idea by feveral confiderations, and illuftrated it by various examples. He faid that the ingenuity of man was unequal to providing before-hand, for all the contingencies that would happen. To declare in detail every thing that government may do, could not be performed, and has never been attempted: It would be endlefs, ufelefs, and dangerous—exceptions of what it may not do, are fhorter, eafier, and fafer. The conftitution contains the principles which are to govern in making laws; but every law requires an application of the rule to the cafe in queftion. We may err in applying it; but we are to exercife our judgments, and on every occafion to decide according to an honeft conviction of its true meaning.

The danger of implied power does not arife from its aflfuming a new principle: We have not only practifed it often; but we can fcarcely proceed without it: Nor does the danger proceed fo much from the extent of the power, as from its uncertainty. While the oppofers of the bank exclaim againft the exercife of this power by congrefs, do they mark out the limits of the power which they will leave to us, with more certainty than is done by the advocates of the bank? Their rules of interpretation, by co-temporaneous teftimony, the debates of conventions, and the doctrine of fubftantive and auxiliary powers, will be found as obfcure, and unfafe, as that which they condemn: They only fet up one conftruction againft another.

The powers of congrefs are difputed, in the prefent inftance; and yet no one will doubt that congrefs may lend money, buy their debt in the market, or redeem their captives from Algiers, none of which powers are expreflly given——If, therefore, fome interpretation of the conftitution muft be indulged, by what rules is it to be governed? The great defign of every aflociation of perfons or ftates, is, to effect the end of its inftitution. Congrefs may do what is neceffary to the end for which the conftitution was adopted, provided it is not repugnant to the natural rights of man, or to thofe which they have expreflly referved to themfelves, or to the powers which are afligned to the ftates. This rule of interpretation feems to be a fafe, and not a very uncertain one, independently of the conftitution itfelf: By that inftrument certain powers are fpecifically delegated, together with all powers neceffary and proper to carry them into execution. That conftruction may be maintained to be a fafe one which promotes the good of the fociety, and the ends for which the government was adopted, without impairing the rights of any man, or the powers of any ftate.

This, he faid, was remarkably true of the bank—no man could have caufe to complain of it; the bills would not be forced upon any one. It is of the firft utility to trade. Indeed the intercourfe from ftate to ftate can never be on a good footing without a bank; whofe paper will circulate more extenfively than that of any ftate bank.

We are to pay the intereft of our debt in thirteen places. Is it poffible to tranfport the revenue from one end of the continent to the other: Nay, a week before the quarter's intereft becomes due, tranfers may be made which will require double the fum in Boflon which was expected. To guard againft this danger, an extra fum muft be depofited at the different loan-offices. This extra fum is not to be had; our revenue is barely equal to the intereft due. This impofes an abfolute neceffity upon the government to make ufe of a bank. The anfwer is, that the ftate banks will fupply this aid. This is rifking a good deal to the argument againft the bank; for will they admit the neceffity, and yet deny to the government the lawful and only adequate means of providing for it. Ten of the ftates have no banks; thofe who have may abolifh theirs, or fuffer their charters to expire. But the ftate banks are inadequate to the purpofe—their paper has not a fufficient circulation—of courfe their capitals are fmall. Congrefs is allowed to have a complete legiflative power over its own finances; and yet without the courtefy of the ftates it cannot be exercifed. This feems to be inconfiftent.

If a war ſhould ſuddenly break out, how is congreſs to provide for it? Perhaps congreſs would not be ſitting; great expences would be incurred, and they muſt inſtantly be provided for. How is this to be done—by taxes? And will the enemy wait till theſe can be collected?—by loans at home? Our citizens would employ their money in war ſpeculations, and they are not individually in a condition to lend a ſufficient ſum in ſpecie—or ſhall we ſend acroſs the ſea for loans? The diſpute between England and Spain furniſhes an example; the aid of their banks for ſeveral millions was prompt and effectual. Or will you ſay that congreſs might iſſue paper money? That power, ruinous and fallacious as it is, is deduced from implication, for it is not expreſsly given. A bank only can afford the neceſſary aid in time of ſudden emergency. If we have not the power to eſtabliſh it, our ſocial compact is incomplete, we want the means of ſelf preſervation.

I ſhall perhaps be told, that neceſſity is the tyrant's plea. I anſwer that it is a miſerable one, when it is urged to palliate the violation of private right. But who ſuffers by this uſe of our authority? not the *ſtates*, for they are not warranted to eſtabliſh a national bank; not *individuals*, for they will be aſſiſted in trade and defended from danger by it.

Having endeavoured to enforce his argument by noticing the uſes of banks to trade, to revenue, to credit, and in caſes of exigency, he adverted to the authority of our own precedents: Our right to govern the weſtern territory is not diſputed. It is a power which no ſtate can exerciſe: It *muſt* be exerciſed, and therefore it reſides in congreſs. But how does congreſs get this power? It is not expreſsly given in the conſtitution, but is derived either from the nature of the caſe, or by implication from the power to regulate the property of the united ſtates. If the power flows from the nature and neceſſity of the caſe, it may be demanded—Is there not equal authority for the bank? If it is derived from the power of congreſs to regulate the territory and other property of the united ſtates, and to make all needful rules and regulations concerning it, and for the diſpoſal of it, a ſtrict conſtruction would reſtrain congreſs merely to the management and diſpoſal of its property; yet it is plain, that more is intended. Congreſs has accordingly made rules not only for governing its own property, but the property of the perſons reſiding there: it has made rules which have no relation to property at all—for puniſhing crimes: In ſhort, it exerciſes all power in that territory: Nay, it has exerciſed this very power of creating a corporation: The government of that territory is a corporation—and who will deny that congreſs may lawfully eſtabliſh a bank beyond the Ohio? It is fair to reaſon by analogy from a power which is unqueſtionable, to one which is the ſubject of debate.

He then aſked, whether it appeared, on this view of the ſubject, that the eſtabliſhment of a national bank would be a violent miſ-interpretation of the conſtitution. He did not contend for an arbitrary unlimited diſcretion in the government to do every thing: He took occaſion to proteſt againſt ſuch a miſ-conception of his argument. He had noticed the great marks by which the conſtruction of the conſtitution, he conceived, muſt be guided and limited—and theſe, if not abſolutely certain, were very far from being arbitrary or unſafe: It is for the houſe to judge, whether the conſtruction which denies the power of congreſs, is more definite and ſafe.

In proving that congreſs may exerciſe powers which are not *expreſsly* granted by the conſtitution, he had endeavoured to eſtabliſh ſuch rules of interpretation, and had illuſtrated his ideas by ſuch obſervations, as would anticipate, in a conſiderable degree, the application of his principles to the point in queſtion. Before he proceeded to the conſtruction of the clauſes of the conſtitution which apply to the argument, he obſerved that it would be proper to notice the qualities of a corporation, in order to take a more exact view of the controverſy.

He adverted to the individuality and the perpetuity of a corporation, and that the property of the individuals ſhould not be liable for the debts of the bank or company. Theſe qualities are not more uſeful to the corporation than conformable to reaſon: but government it is ſaid, cannot create theſe qualities. This is the ſum of the argument: For congreſs may ſet up a bank of its own, to be managed as public property, to iſſue notes which ſhall be received in all payments at the treaſury, which ſhall be exchangeable into ſpecie on demand, and which it ſhall be death to counterfeit. Such a bank would be leſs ſafe and leſs uſeful than one under the direction of private perſons—yet the power to eſtabliſh it is indiſputable. If congreſs has authority to do this buſineſs illy, the queſtion returns, whether the powers of a corporation, which are eſſential

to its being well done, may be annexed as incident to it. The bank of New-York is not a corporation, yet its notes have credit. Congress may agree with that bank, or with a company of merchants, to take their notes, and to cause all payments to pass through their coffers. Every thing that government requires of, and will perform to the bank, may be lawfully done without giving them corporate powers—but to do it well, safely, and extensively, those powers are indispensible. This seems to bring the debate within a very narrow compass.

This led him to consider whether the corporate powers are incidental to those which congress may exercise by the constitution.

He entered into a discussion of the construction of that clause which empowers congress to regulate the territory and other property of the united states. The united states may hold property—may dispose of it—they may hold it in partnership—they may regulate the terms of the partnership. One condition may be, that the common stock only shall be liable for the debts of the partnership, and that any purchaser of a share shall be a partner. These are the chief qualities of a corporation. It seems that congress, having power to make all needful rules and regulations for the property of the united states, may establish a corporation to manage it—without which we have seen, that the regulation cannot be either safe or useful: The united states will be the proprietor of one tenth of the bank stock.

Congress may exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over the ten miles square, and the places ceded by the states for arsenals, light-houses, docks, &c. —Of course, it may establish a bank in those places, with corporate powers. The bill has not restrained the bank to this city—and if it had, the dispute would lose a part of its solemnity: If instead of principles, it concerns only places, what objection is there to the constitutional authority of congress to fix this bank at Sandy-Hook, or Reedy-Island, where we have light-houses, and a right of exclusive legislation? A bank established there, or in the district located by law on the Potowmac for the seat of government, could send its paper all over the union: It is true, that these places are not the most proper for a bank; but the authority to establish it in them, overthrows the argument which is deduced from the definite nature of the powers vested in congress, and the dangerous tendency of the proposed construction of them.

He then considered the power to borrow money. He said it was natural to understand that authority as it was actually exercised in Europe—which is, to borrow of the bank. He observed, the power to borrow was of narrow use, without the institution of a bank—and in the most dangerous crisis of affairs would be a dead letter.

After noticing the power to lay and collect taxes, he adverted to the sweeping clause, as it is called, which empowers congress to exercise all powers necessary and proper to carry the enumerated powers into execution. He did not pretend that it gives any new powers; but it established the doctrine of implied powers.—He then demanded whether the power to incorporate a bank is not fairly relative, and necessary to the entire powers to regulate trade and revenue, and to provide for the public credit and defence.

Mr. Sedgwick said the members opposed to the bill had called in question the constitutional powers of congress to establish the proposed corporation, and the utility of banks, neither of which, till within a few days, did he suppose was doubted by any man in America.

In answer to the arguments that had been urged, against extending construction and implication, he observed, that the whole business of legislation, was a practical construction of the powers of the legislature; and that probably no instrument, for the delegation of power, could be drawn with such precision and accuracy, as to leave nothing to *necessary implication*. That all the different legislatures in the united states had, and *this*, in his opinion, indispensibly must, construe the powers which had been granted to them; and they must assume such auxiliary powers, as are necessarily implied in those which are expressly granted. In doing which, it was no doubt their duty, to be careful not to exceed those limits within which it was intended they should be restricted. By any other limitation, said he, the government would be so shackled, that it would be incapable of producing the effects which were intended by its institution.

He wished gentlemen to reflect, what effect a single principle, universally acknowledged, would have, in determining the question under consideration. It is universally agreed, *That wherever a power is delegated, for express purposes, all the*

known and usual means for the attainment of the objects expressed, are conceded also. That to decide what influence this acknowledged principle would have, on the subject before the house, it would be necessary to reflect on the powers with which congress are *expressly* invested. He then repeated that congress was authorised, to lay and collect taxes, to borrow money on the credit of the united states, to raise and support armies, provide and maintain navies, to regulate foreign and domestic trade, and to make all laws necessary and proper to carry these and the other enumerated powers into effect; they were, in fine, entrusted with the exercise of all those powers, which the people of America thought necessary, to secure their fame and happiness, against the attacks of internal violence, and external invasion; and in the exercise of these powers the legislature was authorised, agreeably to the principle which he had mentioned, to employ all the *known and usual* means, *necessary and proper*, to effectuate the ends which are expressed. It might be of use to determine with precision, what was the meaning of the words *necessary and proper*:—They do not restrict the power of the legislature, to enacting such laws only, as are indispensible: Such a construction would be infinitely too narrow and limited—and to apply the meaning strictly, it would prove, perhaps, that all the laws, which had been passed, were unconstitutional; for few, if any of them, could be proved indispensible to the existence of the government. The conduct of congress had a construction on those words more rational, and consistent with common sense, and the purposes for which the government was instituted; which he conceived to be, that the laws should be established on such principles, and such an agency, in the known and usual means, employed in the execution of them, as to effect the ends expressed in the constitution, with the greatest possible degree of public utility. If banks were among the known and usual means, to effectuate or facilitate the ends which had been mentioned—to enable the government, with the greatest ease, and least burden to the people, to collect taxes, borrow money, regulate commerce, raise and support armies, provide and maintain fleets, he thought the argument irrefragable and conclusive to prove the constitutionality of the bill. Pursuing farther the same idea, he asked, for what purposes were banks instituted and patronized by governments, which were unrestricted by constitutional limitations? Were they not employed as the means, and the most useful engines, to facilitate the collection of taxes, borrowing money, and the other enumerated powers? Besides, he said it was to be observed, that the constitution had expressly declared the ends of legislation; but, in almost every instance, had left the means to the honest and sober discretion of the legislature. From the nature of things this must ever be the case; for otherwise, the constitution must contain, not only all the necessary laws under the existing circumstances of the community, but also a code so extensive, as to adapt itself to all future possible contingencies. By our constitution, congress has power to lay and collect taxes, but every thing subordinate to that end, such as the objects, the means, the instruments, and the purposes, are left to the honest and sober discretion of the legislature. The power of borrowing money was expressly granted; but all the known and usual means to that end were left in silence. The same observations might with truth be made respecting the other delegated powers. The great ends to be obtained, as means to effectuate the ultimate end—the public good, and general welfare, are capable, under general terms, of constitutional specification; but the subordinate means are so numerous, and capable of such infinite variation, as to render an enumeration impracticable, and must therefore be left to *construction, and necessary implication.* He said, on this ground he was willing to leave the general argument—it was simple—intelligible, and he hoped would be thought conclusive.

Mr. Sedgwick answered sundry objections, defended the utility of banks, showed that congress had frequently assumed powers by implication; and concluded by expressing his confidence that a majority of that house could never be induced to believe, that it was the intention of the constitution to deprive the legislature of one of the most important and necessary means of executing the powers expressly delegated.

(To be continued.)

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

Paris, March 26. NATIONAL ASSEMBLY. An elaborate memorial on the queſtion formerly propoſed, reſpecting a uniformity of weights and meaſures, was ſubmitted to the Aſſembly from the Academy of Sciences—Three ſtandards eſtabliſhed by nature were ſeverally examined—Firſt, the pendulum vibrating ſeconds in a given latitude—Second, the meaſure of a portion of the equator—And third, the meaſure of a portion of the meridian.

The firſt was objected to, becauſe it was itſelf to be meaſured by the time which it meaſures;—the ſecond becauſe it could not be meaſured without the concurrence of ſavage nations, there being but one equator;—the third was conſidered as the beſt, becauſe a meridian exiſts every where.

The Aſſembly decreed, That the latter method ſhould be adopted, and that meaſures ſhould accordingly be taken to determine the length of an arc of the meridian, from Dunkirk in France, to Barcelona in Spain.

London April 8. The project of driving the Turks out of Europe, which has ſo often been ſtarted, and as often abandoned by the ſeveral potentates of the north, is now moſt undoubtedly reſolved upon by the imperial Catherine. Her late ſucceſſes have removed the ſmall bounds, which political prudence had formerly objected to her ambition. That eſtabliſhment of a great naval force, which can long give Ruſſia her due influence in the ſtate of European politics, and on which the Empreſs during the whole of her reign has from this conſideration been ſo uniformly bent, can only be brought about by her being poſſeſſed of a total command of the Black-Sea, and of thoſe ſtreights which lead through the ſea of Marmara and the Dardanelles into the Archipelago and the Mediterranean. As long therefore as Conſtantinople and the adjacent country continue in the hands of their preſent maſters, ſo long will Ruſſia be debarred from forming that naval eſtabliſhment, on which her future greatneſs may in a great meaſure be ſaid to depend. Now the injury to which Great Britain will be liable from ſo extenſive an empire as Ruſſia embracing, as it were, the whole globe with its fleets and commerce, is obvious. We ſhall have a moſt formidable rival, probably an opponent, in addition to thoſe formidable ones with which we have already to combat, in that element, the dominion of which it has for ſo many ages heen the pride of England to arrogate to itſelf. Boundleſs in its reſources, particularly in thoſe which are neceſſary to naval affairs, Ruſſia, if once ſhe obtains a ſure footing, will in a ſhort time, take the lead of all the European powers. Even ſuppoſing that by long attained ſuperiority, we ſhould at firſt be able to cope with a newly eſtabliſhed and unexperienced navy, like the heads of the Hydra, fleet after fleet will iſſue from the various ports of that vaſt empire, and eventually overwhelm the exhauſted force of its inferior adverſaries. Like an immenſe whirlpool, Ruſſia will by degrees ſwallow up every neighbouring ſtate, till it becomes, what in fact the preſent Empreſs aims at rendering it, the ſole independent maritime ſtate in Europe.

DOMESTIC INTELLIGENCE.

Boſton, May 26. His excellency JOHN ADAMS, Eſq. Vice Preſident of the united ſtates, was on Tueſday elected Preſident of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

Danbury, May 26. One day laſt week, the wife of Mr. D. Mallery, jun. of Reading, in a dropſical caſe, had taken from her, 55 quarts of water, which weighed 123 pounds. In perfect health, Mrs. Mallery was ſuppoſed to weigh 100 pounds.

Elizabeth-Town, June 1, While the proſpect of wheat harveſt to the Northward is promiſing, Eaſt-Jerſey has to deplore that that baleful inſect, the *Heſſian-Fly*, is making great ravages among the winter grains.

George-Town, June 4. On Saturday laſt, Mr. Ellicott, the geographer-general of the united ſtates, completed ſix main lines of the federal city: He is now engaged in clearing and bounding the lines of the diſtrict of ten miles ſquare.

Pittſburgh, *May* 17, 1791. We the ſubſcribers, encouraged by a large ſubſcription, do promiſe to pay One Hundred Dollars, for every hoſtile Indian's ſcalp, with both ears to it, taken between this day and the 15th. of June next, by any inhabitant of Alleghany county.

George Wallace,	*Adamſon Tanuehill,*
Robert Elliot,	*John Wilkinſon, jun.*
William Amberſon,	*John Irwin.*

Philadelphia, June 21. In a hail-ſtorm in Montgomery county, Pennſylvania, the 24th. ult. very great injury was ſuſtained—the crops of grain, and in ſhort every green thing within its reach were deſtroyed—cattle, ſheep, hogs, and poultry were killed by the hail-ſtones, ſome of which were found to weigh three ounces———many perſons expoſed were found to be very much wounded; and it was obſerved that the horſes had large ſwellings on their heads and bodies, occaſioned by the ſtrokes from the hail.

York, (*Pennſylvania*,) June 8. Some gentlemen who left Kentucky on the 20th. of May, paſſed through this town on Sunday laſt, by whom we learn, that an army conſiſting of about 1000 choſen militia, under the command of general Scott, and a great number of volunteers, among whom are many reſpectable characters, had marched againſt the Indians, three days previous to their departure.

Commencement in the College of Philadelphia.

On the 23rd. June, a commencement, for conferring degrees in medicine, was held in the College. Dr. Smith, the Provoſt, opened the buſineſs by prayer; and Dr. Wiſtar introduced the ſubjects of the ſeveral diſſertations, together with the names of the candidates, in a ſhort addreſs. The candidates were then examined on the ſubjects of their theſes; viz.

James Blundell, of Delaware—on *Dyſentery*.
Samuel F. Conover, of New-Jerſey, on the *Cauſes of ſleep and dreams*.
James Graham, of Philadelphia, de *Scrophula*.
Haſt Handy, of Maryland, on the *Effects of opium upon the human body*.
And, George Pfeiffer, of Philadelphia, on the *Gout*.

The degree of *Doctor of Medicine* was then conferred on the ſeveral candidates. A judicious and elegant charge, by Dr. Wiſtar, and a few words of advice to the graduates, by the Provoſt, concluded the exerciſes of the day.

It appears by the proceedings of the convention of the Proteſtant Epiſcopal church at Newark, New-Jerſey, on the 4th inſtant, that a copy right in the Book of Common Prayer, as altered by the late general Epiſcopal convention, had been claimed by *William Hall*, as proprietor under the act of congreſs. The convention have remonſtrated againſt this claim, and declare it is not well founded—that ſuch aſſumed excluſive privilege is in its operation an impoſition on the members of that church; and they accordingly propoſe, that the ſeveral ſtate conventions of the Epiſcopal clergy ſhould take meaſures to have the ſaid book printed reaſonably, and expeditiouſly, that a general ſupply of them may be obtained.

Extract of a letter from a mercantile houſe in Havre de Grace, to a correſpondent in this city, dated 8th. May, 1791.

SIR,

Suppoſing it will be acceptable, we take the liberty to addreſs you, and to give you ſome mercantile and political information reſpecting this country. The groundwork of the conſtitution is nearly completed, and in a few weeks hence the ſecond legiſlature is to be convened. What remains to be done yet, will be, before the newly choſen members can meet.

Thus the late glorious unprecedented revolution, has produced at length the wiſhed for government. All attempts of malevolents to overturn it, are for ever paſt poſſibility—as is proved in a moſt convincing and undeniable manner by the late elections of the clergy, effected by the people themſelves, who removed ſuch as refuſed to take the conſtitutional oath, ſetting up men to their hearts. We enjoy pretty good quiet at home, and have nothing to fear from abroad; yet we are well prepared for what may happen, though we never more ſhall take the field again, but for the ſake of ſelf-defence.

What you may hear to the contrary, be ſure, is diſſeminated to anſwer bad purpoſes, and therefore deſerves no credit.

The once property of the clergy—now national one—ſells far above the eſtimated value of 2000 millions of livres. Our paper money, called aſſignats, iſſued to the amount of 1200 millions, and which the above domains are pledged for, paſſes without objection in every payment, and is publickly burnt as it returns from circulation into the treaſury. In this manner 100 millions of aſſignats have been deſtroyed till this day. This emiſſion neither affects public credit nor private property, people being aſſured that it contributes largely to liquidate the debts of France in a few years time. In our finances the ſtricteſt economy is preſiding, and commerce receives all deſerving attention.

We know no more of monopolies. All reſtraints and duties on the interior trade and circulation are aboliſhed, as will be, what may yet be found an obſtacle to the increaſe of manufactories and induſtry, which, we make no doubt, will ſoon get up to the higheſt pitch of perfection. Already the effects of the new regulations begin to be obvious in our funds—which on an average are rather above par.

We now give you an abſtract of ſome new duty acts.

Tobacco having become a free article is not admitted, but unmanufactured in leaves and hogſheads, and from the united ſtates, in none but their own or French ſhipping; in the firſt liable to a duty of 25 livres, and in the latter to one of 18 liv. 15ſ. for each hundred weight, to be paid by the buyer, if ſold here, and to ſtand void, if re-exported. The whole ſtock which the farmer has had left on hand, is to be ſold publickly, at a day to be fixed yet, manufactured at 35 ſous, and unmanufactured at 12 ſous or more, but not leſs for each lb. Previous to to the ſale no pound can be diſpoſed of at leſs than 36 ſous. In the tobacco houſes of this place, formerly occupied by the farmers general, a large manufactory will be kept a going for private account, and we ſhall have a great many more eſtabliſhed in our neighbourhood. Whale and fiſh oil is only admitted from the united ſtates, and in none but American or French bottoms, on paying indiſcriminately 6 livres duty for a hundred wt.

Ginſang 45 livres, unworked yellow wax 3 livres a hundred wt.

Ship-timber, tallow, rice, and all kinds of corn, pot and pearl aſhes, will be exempt from duty.

The ſale of foreign built veſſels, unleſs unable to put to ſea again, is prohibited.

The ſituation of this place, as well for a port of re-exportation as the grand mart for the metropolis and neighbouring places and provinces, is equal to any in Europe. In a few months more our baſons will be fit to receive a fleet of upwards of 400 ſail of ſquare-rigged veſſels.

Extract of a letter from London, April 6.

"European politics are very perplexed at preſent: We are now arming here for the purpoſe of reſtoring peace, or if you will, for the purpoſe of ſpreading the deſolations of war ſtill wider, if the terms inſiſted on by England, Pruſſia, and Holland, for preſerving the political equilibrium, be rejected by Ruſſia. Some are confident the Empreſs will not abate of her haughtineſs, and that war will be the reſult—while others are equally confident that the whole affair will be ſummed up in a bullying match during the ſummer, and a peaceable termination before winter—Time only can develope the conſequences."

By a gentleman lately arrived from Cadiz, we are informed, that a large train of artillery were marching from Seville to Madrid, under the colour of being for the king's amuſement, but by many it was ſuppoſed that this was intended to check the ſpirit of thoſe who may feel inclined to revolutioneering in that country.

We hear that one thouſand ſhares in the bank of the united ſtates, are already ſubſcribed by the citizens of South-Carolina, principally by the merchants and others of Charleſton. Between ſeven and eight thouſand dollars, part of the ſpecie depoſit, were lodged in the bank of North-America this week, by William Smith, Eſq.

A ſubſcription for two thouſand four hundred ſhares was filled in Boſton in four days, and the ſpecie depoſit, amounting to ſixty thouſand dollars, paid in to the Maſſachuſetts bank.

In the towns of St. Johnſbury and Lynden (Vermont) have been made, the laſt ſpring, 13,000 lbs. Maple Sugar. Theſe towns are juſt ſettled, and contain, together, about 35 families.

Excellent EDICT *by the late* EMPEROR JOSEPH.

Whereas the dangerous conſequences ariſing from the uſe of ſtays, are univerſally to impair the health and impede the growth of the fair ſex; when on the contrary, the ſuppreſſion of that part of their dreſs cannot but be effectual in ſtrengthening their conſtitution, and above all in rendering them more fruitful in the marriage ſtate, we hereby ſtrictly enjoin, that in all orphan houſes, nunneries, and other places ſet apart for the education of young girls, no ſtays of any kind whatever ſhall be made uſe of, or encouraged from henceforth; and it is hereby further hinted, to all maſters and miſtreſſes of academies and boarding ſchools, that any girl wearing ſtays, ſhould not be received or countenanced in ſuch ſchools.

APPOINTMENT.

The Preſident of the united ſtates has appointed *Oliver Wolcott*, jun, Eſq. (late auditor) comptroller of the treaſury of the united ſtates.

MARRIAGES.

MASSACHUSETTS. At *Hingham*, Mr. Abner Lincoln to Miſs Hannah Lincoln, At *Salem*, Mr. Ebenezer Putnam to Miſs Sally Fiſk.

NEW-YORK. In the *capital*, Mr. Charles W. Peale, of *Philadelphia*, to Miſs Elizabeth Depeyſter; Mr. Iſaac Liveſay to Miſs Jane Laurence. At *Smiths-Town*, *Long-Iſland*, Mr. William Smith to Miſs Hannah Smith.

PENNSYLVANIA. In *Philadelphia*, Mr. James Potter to Miſs Duffield; Mr. S. W. Fiſher to Miſs Elizabeth Rhoads; Joſeph Thomas Eſq. to Miſs Mary Morton; Mr. John Poultney to Miſs Lydia Byrnes.

DEATHS.

At *Newington-Green*, near *London*, the celebrated *Dr. Price*. At *Paris*, M. de Mirabeau the elder, a man of diſtinguiſhed literary talents, and a patriotic member of the National Aſſembly, during the late glorious revolution in France.

MASSACHUSETTS, At *Roxbury*, William Erving, Eſq. He has bequeathed to the Univerſity of Cambridge £1000; the intereſt to be appropriated to the Profeſſor of Chemiſtry, for the time being. In *Danbury*, of the ſmall pox (the natural way) Deacon Stephen Biſhop, aged 75.

RHODE-ISLAND. At *Providence*, Nicholas Brown, Eſq.

NEW-YORK. In the *capital*, Mrs. Mary Beekman.

NEW-JERSEY. Near *Haddonfield*, Samuel Alliſon, Eſq. On her paſſage from *Charleſton* to *Philadelphia*, Miſs Eſther Clarke, of *Stoney-Brook*. At *Burlington*, John Storey, Eſq.

PENNSYLVANIA. In *Philadelphia*, Mr. Joſeph Carſon; Doctor John Jones; Mrs. Anne Willing, aged 81; Miſs Peggy Riehle; Mrs. Elizabeth Byron; Mr. William Barry. At *York*, Michael Hahn, Eſq.

Philadelphia Prices-Current,

JUNE, 30, 1791.

Ashes, pot, p. ton,	40-41l10s.	
Beef: Pen. and Jer. p. bbl.	48s.	
Beef: Connecticut, do.	47s6.	
Beef: Boston, (wmships)	55s.	
Brandy, French, p. gal.	8/4-9s.	
Bread, ship, per cwt.	16/.	
Beer: American, in bottles, per dozen	8/4.	
Beer: Ditto, per bbl.	30s.	
Boards: Oak, p. m. feet,	67/6-85s	
Boards: Merchant. pine	95s.	
Boards: Sap,	60s.	
Boards: Cedar,	55-65s.	
Chocolate, per lb.	1s.	
Coffee, per. lb.	14d.	
Flour: Superfine, p. bl.	37/6-38.	
Flour: Common,	35s.	
Flour: Bur. mid. best,	31s.	
Flour: Middlings,	26-27s.	
Flour: Ship stuff, p. cwt.	7-8s.	
Flax, per lb.	8d-9d.	
Flaxseed, per bush.	5/6.	
Ginseng, per lb.	2/2.	
Gin, Holland, per gal.	5/9.	
Grain: Wheat, p. bush.	7/4-7/9.	
Grain: Rye,	4/2-4/4.	
Grain: Oats,	1/8-2/6.	
Grain: Indian corn,	2/4-2/9.	
Grain: Barley,	4/6-4/9.	
Grain: best shelled,	20s.	
Grain: Buckwheat,	2/6	
Hams, per lb.	7d.	
Hogs-lard,	8d.	
Honey,	3½d4d.	
Hemp, per. ton,	50-56l.	
Hops, per lb.	2/3-2/6.	
Hogshead hoops, p. m.	5-6l.	
Hides raw, per lb.	9d-10d.	
Indigo, Fr. per lb.	7/6-10s.	
Indigo, Carolina,	3/6-7/6.	
Iron: Cast, per cwt.	22/6-30s.	
Iron: Bar, per ton,	28l-30l.	
Iron: Pig,	10l.	
Iron: Sheet,	58l-64l	
Iron: Nail rods,	35l.	
Meal, Indian, p. bbl	17s.	
Molasses, per gal.	2/3.	
Nails, 10, 12 & 20d.	8½d.	
Oil: Sper. strained, p. g.	3/7.	
Oil: Whale com.	1/10.	
Oil: Do. Northern,	2/6.	
Oil: Tanners p. bbl.	67/6	
Parchment, per doz.	37/6-45.	
Porter, American,	11/6-12.	
Pork: Burlington,	82/6.	
Pork: Lower Co.	74/6.	
Pork: Carolina,	56-60s.	
Pease,	7/6-8/4.	
Rice, per cwt.	21s.	
Rum: Jamaica per g.	6s.	
Rum: Windward,	4/6.	
Rum: Antigua,	5/6.	
Rum: Barbadoes,	4-4/6.	
Rum: Country,	3/9.	
Rum: Taffia,	2/4-2/6.	
Steel: German, p. cwt.	60-70s.	
Steel: English, blistered,	82/6.	
Steel: Amer. p. ton,	40-44l.	
Steel: Crowley's, p. fag.	72s.	
Snake root, p. lb.	1/6-2/6	
Soap, common,	6d.	
Soap, Castile,	8-9d.	
Starch,	4d-6d.	
Sugar: Lump, per lb.	17d.	
Sugar: Loaf, sing. refin.	18d.	
Sugar: Ditto, double ditto.	22d.	
Sugar: Havannah, white,	12d.	
Sugar: Ditto, brown,	9d.	
Sugar: Musco. p. cwt.	70-85s.	
Salt: Allum, p. bush.	2s.	
Salt: Liverpool,	2/2.	
Salt: Cadiz,	1/10½.	
Salt: Lisbon,	2/2.	
Tar: N. Jer. 24 g.	7/6.	
Tar: Carolina, 32 g.	10/6.	
Tar: Turpentine,	22-22/6.	
Tobacco, 100lb: J. R. new, best,	27/6-28s.	
Tobacco, 100lb: Inferior,	22-24s.	
Tobacco, 100lb: Old,	35-37/6.	
Tobacco, 100lb: Rappahan.	18s-22/6.	
Tobacco, 100lb: Coloured Maryl.	38-58s.	
Tobacco, 100lb: Dark,	17s.	
Tobacco, 100lb: Long leaf,	17s.	
Tobacco, 100lb: Eastern Shore,	15s-17.	
Tobacco, 100lb: Carolina, new,	25s-30s.	
Tobacco, 100lb: Old,	22s-24s.	
Tea: Hyson, p. lb.	7s-8/4.	
Tea: Souchong,	7s-6/8.	
Tea: Congo,	34/-3/9.	
Tea: Bohea,	2/7.	
Wine: Mad. p. p.	40l-75l.	
Wine: Lisbon,	22/10s-30l.	
Wine: Teneriffe, p. g.	4/2-4/6.	
Wine: Fayal, p. g.	3s.	
Wine: Port, per pipe,	35-40l.	
Wine: Ditto, per gal.	7s.	
Wine: Dit. per doz. bot.	30s.	
Wine: Claret,	30-45s.	
Wine: Sherry, p. gal.	6/9-9s.	
Wine: Malaga,	5/6.	
Wax, bees, per lb.	1/10½.	

Current Prices of PUBLIC SECURITIES.

Funded debt.	6 per Cents	17/9	18s.	per £. or 86	per Cent.
Funded debt.	3 per Cents	9/9	10s.	or 46	do.
Funded debt.	Defered 6 per Cents	9/9	10s.	45	do.
Unfunded do.	Final Settl. and other Certificates	16/9	17s.	80	do.
Unfunded do.	Indents	9/9	10s.	45	do.
Unfunded do.	State debts	13s	15/6.	62½	do.

COURSE of EXCHANGE.

Bills of Exchange, London,	90 days,	72.	Amsterdam,	60 days, per guilder,	2/11-3s.
Ditto,	60 days,	72½.		30 days,	3/1
Ditto	30 days,	73½.	France,	60 days, per 5 livres,	7/1
				30 days,	7/2

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS, made in PHILADELPHIA, in the MONTH of MAY, 1791.

Days.	Baromet. Eng. foot. In.	1/12	1/16	Thermometer of Farenh. D.	1/10	O	Reaum. D.	1/10	O	Anemometer Prevail Wind	Rain	Thunder	Form	WEATHER.
1	29	11	6	58	8		11	9		N				Fair
	29	11	0	77	2		20	1		E				Fair
2	30	1	13	54	5		10	0		ENE				Fair
	30	1	0	70	5		17	1		SE				Fair
3	30	2		52	7		9	2		ESE				Fair
	30	1	9	59	9		12	4		E				Cloudy
4	30	1	9	50	4		8	2		SSE				Cloudy
	29	11	7	74	5		18	9		WSW				Cloudy
5	29	9	2	54	5		10			WNW				Fair
	29	8	4	67	8		15	9		NNW				Fair
6	29	10	6	51	3		8	6		NNW				Fair
	29	10	9	61	5		13	1		WSW				Fair
7	30	1	9	50	0		8	0		WNW				Fair
	30	0	12	68	2		16	1		WSW				Fair
8	30	3	0	59	4		12	2		WSW				Fair
	30	2	6	70	5		17	1		WSW				Cloudy
9	30	3	15	56	7		11	0		WNW				Fair
	30	3	11	72	9		18	2		W				Fair
10	30	5		59	0		12	0		NNW				Fair
	30	4	2	76	5		19	8		NE				Fair
11	30	4	5	61	5		13	1		SE				Cloudy
	30	3	2	84	0		23	1		SW				Fair
12	30	3	7	65	3		14	8		SW				Fair
	30	2	3	83	3		22	8		SW				Fair
13	30	0	4	69	8		16	8		WSW	1			Cloudy, ſmall rain
	29	10	14	86	2		24	1		SSW	1	1		Cloudy thunder rain
14	29	11		45	9		6	2		NE	1			Rain
	29	11	3	63	5		14	0		W				Cloudy
15	30	1		59	4		12	2		N NW				Cloudy
	30	0	12	70	5		17	1		W				Cloudy
16	30	1	7	53	8		9	7		WNW				Fair
	30	1	7	72	9		18	2		WNW				Fair
17	30	3	6	58	3		11	7		N				Fair
	30	3	6	80	4		21	5		SW				Fair
18	30	3	13	65	7		15	0		SW				Fair
	30	3	3	83	1		22	7		WSW				Fair
19	30	3		56	7		11	0		ENE				Fair
	30	1	10	78	3		20	6		ESE	1			Cloudy, rain in night
20	29	11	8	59	2		12	1		NE	1			Rain
	29	10	12	74	7		19	0		WNW	1	1		Fair, thunder, rain
21	30	0	10	52	2		9	0		NW				Fair
	30	0	1	70	5		17	1		WNW				Fair
22	30	1	5	53	6		9	6		W				Fair
	30	1	0	75	2		19	2		WSW				Fair
23	30	2	8	58	1		11	6		WNW				Fair
	30	2	7	75	0		19	1		WNW				Fair
24	30	3	10	59			12	0		S				Fair
	30	3	10	82	8		22	6		S	1			Cloudy, rain in night
25	30	3	2	65	7		15	0		S				Cloudy
	30	2	13	87	3		24	6		SW	1			Cloudy, rain in night
26	30	2	13	69	6		16	7		WSW				Cloudy
	30	2	3	85	1		23	6		WSW				Cloudy
27	30	2	10	70	2		17	0		ENE				Cloudy
	30	2	6	85	3		23	7		WNW				Fair
28	30	2	8	70			16	9		SW				Cloudy
	30	2	7	86			24	0		WSW				Cloudy
29	30	2	8	70	7		17	2		WNW				Fair
	30	3	5	89	6		25	6		SW				Fair
30	30	3	3	70	5		17	1		SW				Fair
	30	2	11	91	6		26	5		SW				Fair
31	30	3	5	70	2		17	0		SSW				Fair
	30	3	3	89	1		25	4		SSE	1	1		Fair, thunder, rain
RESULT.	10th gr. ele. 30	5	0	30th gr. de. of heat 91	6		26	5		SW				
	5th least el. 29	8	4	14th least de. of heat 45	9		6	2			9	3		Fair
	Variation 0	8	12	Variation 45	7		20	3		WSW				
	Mean eleva. 30	1	11	Temperature 68	9		16	4						

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TO THE

UNIVERSAL ASYLUM, &c.

From JANUARY *to* JUNE 1791, *inclusively.*

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